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Status of Women: A Comparative Analysis of Twenty Developing Countries

By Leslie B. Curtin



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Summary

This report examines women's status in 20 developing countries, based on World Fertility Survey (WFS) data. The WFS data provide insight into women's educational attainment and employment participation. The 20 countries included in this report (12 from Asia and the Pacific and 8 from Latin America and the Caribbean) are widely distributed geographically and reflect diverse social systems and structures. The sample is composed of ever-married (or ever-in-union) women between the ages of 15 and 49 years.

The results indicate that:

- Educational attainment for women has improved substantially in most countries over the past 25 years. For example, in Malaysia, the proportions of women with no education fell from about 70 percent among the oldest women to 12 percent among the youngest women surveyed.
- Extreme differences still exist in illiteracy rates between men and women. Approximately 46 percent of the women compared to 25 percent of the men in the Asian/Pacific countries surveyed were illiterate. Differentials exist in the Latin American/Caribbean region as well, although they are not as great.
- Many more men than women have attained secondary or higher levels of education.
- Among the Asian/Pacific countries, the proportion of women who have never worked varies considerably, ranging from 86 percent in Bangladesh to 3 percent in Thailand. In some countries within this region a common pattern is employment both before and after marriage. Work patterns are more evenly distributed in the Latin American/Caribbean countries where the proportion of women who have never worked is less than 50 percent in all countries in the region.
- Despite lower levels of development (as measured by per capita GNP and Physical Quality of Life Index), the percentage of women who are currently employed in many Asian/Pacific countries is higher than in Latin America and the Caribbean. In some South and East Asian countries very high female labor force participation rates are found, but women have a larger share of agricultural employment than nonagricultural employment.

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June 1982

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Population Reference Bureau

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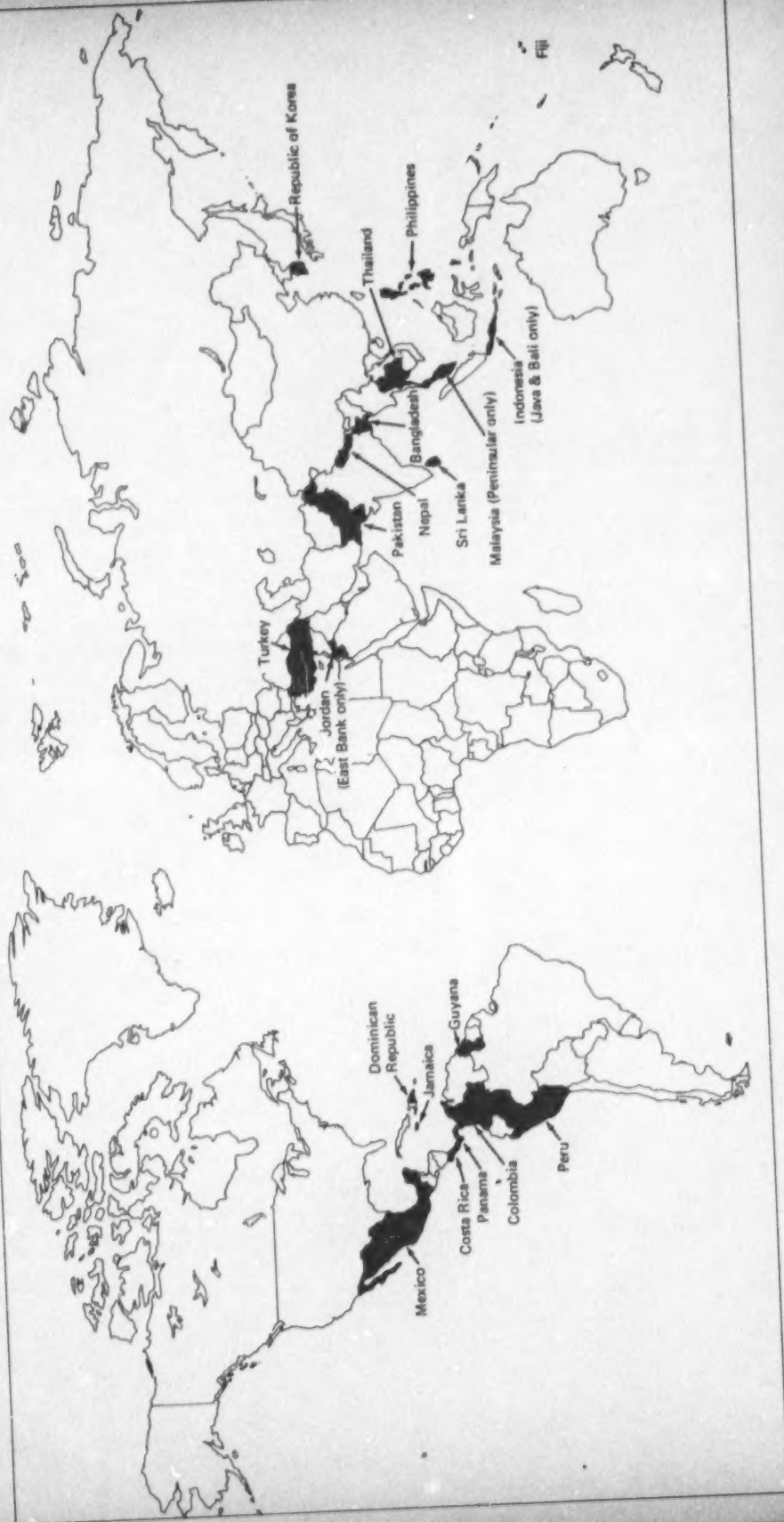
Preface

Status of Women: A Comparative Analysis of Twenty Developing Countries is the fifth report in a series based on data resulting from the World Fertility Survey (WFS). Begun in 1972 under the auspices of the International Statistical Institute and with major support from the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, the United Nations' Fund for Population Activities and the United States Agency for International Development, the World Fertility Survey is an international research effort to encourage and assist countries in collecting and analyzing basic demographic data and more specific data on national patterns of fertility behavior.

The data are collected by trained interviewers, almost all women, who administer the WFS "core questionnaire" modified and translated for local use. An average survey involves detailed interviews with about 5,000 women. Tabulation of survey results has been standardized, facilitating international comparisons.

The first survey was conducted in Fiji in 1974. Within the next few years over 40 developing countries are expected to complete the survey and publish a First Country Report which provides some analysis of the data and a large number of tabulations. This Population Reference Bureau series is based primarily on the data presented in these First Country Reports and other WFS publications.

Figure 1. World Fertility Survey Countries Included in This Report



Introduction

Virtually no society in the world provides women equal status with men. It is well established that women have limited opportunities, as compared with men, in most spheres of economic and social activity. Anthropologists have found that while women have been given considerable social recognition and power in some societies, no society has publicly recognized women's power as exceeding that of men.^{1,2}

There is some disagreement, however, about what actually constitutes women's status, what accounts for the suppression of opportunities for women, and how best to improve women's status and opportunities. Current research indicates that women's status should be viewed as a composite of many different variables, which are often interdependent in a given cultural setting. Women's position in society is generally illustrated by certain indices in at least five spheres: (1) politics and law, (2) education, (3) the economy, (4) social recognition, and (5) power.^{3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10} However, some theorists have criticized the use of particular variables as reflecting the status of the economy or country rather than the status of women, *per se*.

Knowledge of women's roles in politics and their degree of participation in community affairs provide information on the extent to which women participate in official and unofficial policymaking. Women are excluded from equal participation in politics by traditional attitudes towards women's roles, by lack of education and training, and by domestic responsibilities which leave little time for political activity. Legal rights available to women and the extent to which women exercise their legal rights regarding personal freedom, marriage, divorce, and property ownership and inheritance are also indicators of status. In a number of countries women do not receive equal treatment from the courts. They may be betrothed when they are children and after marriage are denied the right to make contracts, administer, inherit, or own property, become employed, travel outside their countries, or even use family planning methods without their husband's consent. Women living in such circumstances find their options outside the family limited not only by social and economic structure, but also by the law. Their place is thought to be within the home, but even there women's options are often legally controlled by the wishes of their husbands and other male members of their families. Whether a woman has the same rights as a man to freely enter marriage, to choose a spouse, and to have equal rights and responsibilities during marriage and its dissolution is determined by law as well as custom.

Educational attainment is a well-established indicator of the socioeconomic status of women. Often considered a measure of female modernity, it is normally viewed as an essential contributor to women's higher status. Education plays an important role in overcoming poverty by increasing incomes, improving health and nutrition, and reducing family size.

Education delays marriage for women, increases the opportunity for paid employment, and enables women to be increasingly aware of alternatives which exist for them outside the home. Not only do general education and vocational training impart specific knowledge, they also induce changes in beliefs and values by encouraging receptivity to new ideas, competitiveness, and self-confidence. Education also is assumed to increase communication between marriage partners, better enabling women to be rational decision-makers and to implement decisions affecting their lives.

Studies in several countries have shown that a "modern" approach to activities such as family planning is more influenced by education than by any other factor.^{11,12,13} Educated women are more likely to know about and use contraceptives than their less educated counterparts. The ability to regulate fertility safely and effectively makes a fundamental contribution not only to the physical health of women but also to their chances for a productive role in society. On the other hand, women who do not have basic rights within the family and within society may have difficulty in using family planning methods effectively. The interdependence of women's status and the ability to plan childbearing is gaining increasing attention among policymakers.

Women's control of productive resources and the extent of their involvement in certain economic sectors are important dimensions of status. The importance of the economic independence of women is supported by evidence that the greater the resources a woman brings into marriage in comparison with those of her husband, including in particular her education and earning potential, the more significant her role within the family.¹⁴ Measures of female labor force participation and income are frequently used as indicators of women's economic status. These measures should be regarded with caution, however, when used to compare status cross-culturally. It is necessary to consider both formal and informal employment opportunities, to look at all the responsibilities which are assigned to women, and to look at the extent to which particular types of work give (or do not give) women higher or more independent status within the family and community. It is also important to consider the opportunities women have to use their earned income.

Social recognition and esteem conferred to women are considered indicators of status. These include consideration of the rights, duties, and expectations resulting from being female, as well as the contradictions associated with and arising from those rights, duties, and expectations.

Women's power may be analyzed in terms of women's personal autonomy and women's interpersonal equality. Women's personal autonomy refers to their opportunities for self-directing freedom. Women's interpersonal equality is usually studied in relation to the degree of deference women owe to males, both in society and in the family. Moses¹⁵ suggests that studies of kinship relationships and networks provide natural settings in which to study female status, because it is often through the kin group that women develop and maintain a sense of power, solidarity, continuity, and status. She suggests, furthermore, that the study of friendships is important. The degree of alternatives that women have in a society, and the degree to which the sexes are segregated socially may often be determined by those with whom women associate. Some scholars¹⁶ have suggested that religion and other symbolic systems such as values, myth, ritual, and literature provide insight into how ideologies, such as male dominance, are started, internalized, and perpetuated.

In sum, while generalizations can be made, there seems to be no consensus as to the exact definition or indicators of status. In addition, except for the biological difference between the sexes, there is no agreement as to the causes hypothesized to account for the suppression of opportunities for women. It does seem clear, however, that a study of women's status necessarily involves some discussion of the economic, demographic, social, cultural, and ideological factors which act to keep women subordinate in these various spheres.

Data on social, cultural, and ideological factors are seldom available to social scientists who conduct comparative analyses using survey data. The paucity of data is noted in this report which seeks to describe women's status using published World Fertility Survey (WFS) data. First Country Reports of the WFS provide information on the background characteristics of respondents.* Background characteristics generally relevant to the purpose of this report include: (1) educational attainment, (2) current type of residence, (3) religion, (4) husband's occupation, and (5) wife's pattern of work. This

report is thus limited to the analysis of these dimensions of women's status.

Although the use of survey data may describe women's status in a limited way, WFS data are original, and provide insight into women's educational attainment and employment participation. This report seeks to: (1) examine the distribution of women according to level of education, pattern of work, and occupation in 20 developing countries; (Analysis by age will help to reveal changes which have taken place over time.) (2) compare and contrast educational attainment, pattern of work, and occupation among the 20 countries; and (3) analyze the interrelationship between educational attainment, residence, and pattern of work. Such an analysis will allow an assessment of how these characteristics may together affect women's status. Since it makes little sense to study women's status independently from that of men, whenever possible analyses for respondents and their husbands (partners) will be compared.

Geographic and Cultural Diversity

The 20 developing countries included in this report are widely distributed geographically, and reflect diverse social systems and structures. Varied ethnohistorical, socioeconomic, cultural, and religious characteristics have evolved to affect women's status differently in each of these countries. Figure 1 shows the countries included in this report. Appendix Table A-1 shows selected demographic, social, and economic characteristics for these countries.**

Twelve countries from Asia and the Pacific are included. All differ in culture, language, and religion. In two South Asian countries, Nepal and Sri Lanka, Hinduism predominates. Islam is the main religion in six countries: Bangladesh, Indonesia, Jordan, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Turkey. The other countries are the Republic of Korea, the Philippines, Thailand, and Fiji.

In Islamic countries, specific cultural institutions affect the status of women. The institution of *purdah* thoroughly segregates Muslim women from the public domain. Referring to women in Bangladesh, Jahan writes, "In the strictest sense *purdah* involves keeping women confined within the four walls of the home and veiling them when they leave the home. In a wider context, *purdah* refers to women's modesty and restrictions on their inter-

*See Preface for more information on the World Fertility Survey and First Country Reports.

**Countries included here were determined on the basis of the availability of WFS First Country Reports at the time of writing.

actions with males who do not fall within the specified categories of those with whom contact is permitted by the religion.¹⁷ Secluded in the home, with minimal access to knowledge about their own culture, women are excluded from the institutions that control their lives.

The pervasiveness of the *purdah* system, however, differs among Islamic countries. In Indonesia and Malaysia, for example, women work freely in the fields and in the market place. Furthermore, rising socioeconomic status increases rigidity of *purdah* observance. Prosperous families can afford to put their women in *purdah*, which involves two kinds of restrictions on women's movements. To ensure spatial restriction, the family has to be wealthy so that it can allocate enough living space and separate bathing facilities for its women. The requirement which permits a woman to leave the home only if she is covered in a tent-like veil (called *burque*) or if she travels in veiled transport, is also impractical for poorer women who must frequently leave their households to fetch water, bathe, work in the fields, or occasionally work for others. These women cover their heads with their sari to symbolize *purdah* observance.

The eight Latin American and Caribbean countries included in this analysis are Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Guyana, Jamaica, Mexico, Panama, and Peru. These countries are less culturally heterogeneous than the Asian countries. With the exception of Guyana and Jamaica, all are former Spanish colonies; Spanish has remained the official language, and Roman Catholicism the predominant religion. Guyana and Jamaica are culturally and ethnically distinct from the other countries. Both are former British colonies where English is the common language and most people are Protestant.

A primary source of diversity in the Latin American and Caribbean countries is the influence of the traditional Amerindian and African cultures on contemporary society. Each country's ethnohistorical experience gives rise to cultural variations which have influenced the structure of the family and the status of women.

Definition of Variables

Eligible women are defined as ever-married (or ever-in-consensual union for countries in Latin America and the Caribbean), and between the ages

of 15 and 49 years. This restricted definition is imposed by the WFS data.

Current Residence

Current residence is interpreted as usual place of residence. For ease of analysis, the simplest grouping, urban and rural, is used throughout this report. In six of the 20 countries, the survey grouped residence into three categories: city or metropolitan, town, and rural or village. The residence variable was recoded as a dichotomy for these countries according to country-specific definitions; recoded definitions are footnoted in appropriate tables.

Level of Educational Attainment

WFS respondents were asked two questions related to schooling. Literacy was determined by asking women with less than six grades of schooling whether they could read. Educational attainment was determined by asking what was the highest level of school attended. The three categories of educational attainment used in the analysis (none, no more than primary, and some secondary or higher) have been determined by the usual number of years needed to complete the respective levels, as indicated by WFS documentation.¹⁸ These do not overcome the variation in countries' definitions of levels of education, nor do they take into account differences in the quality or content of education between countries. They are useful, however, in that they group each country's population into relevant social status groups.*

Pattern of Work

Surveys in most of the countries followed a broad definition of work: any employment apart from housework for which the woman is paid in cash or kind; self-employment in selling or running a business; or finally, work on a family farm. Three countries had slightly different definitions of work: Fiji and Bangladesh considered only employment which resulted in cash earnings; in Pakistan, work on the family farm was not included in the definition.

Pattern of work variables in this report are analyzed in terms of currently working women and work history before and after marriage. The variables to analyze patterns of work were recoded as follows: (a) 'currently working and worked before marriage' plus 'worked before marriage and since marriage, but not currently working' equals the

*A few countries have a more complicated educational structure than is indicated by the three levels. Some countries have a preparatory level which is intermediate between primary and secondary high school. It is included with the higher level in this report because the primary level in these few countries was comparable to the level of primary education in other countries. Countries which have this intermediate category are indicated in table footnotes.

recoded category 'worked before and after marriage'; and (b) 'currently working but did not work before marriage' plus 'worked after marriage but not currently working' equals the recoded category 'worked after marriage only.' The remaining two categories are as indicated in the WFS First Country Reports: 'worked before marriage only' and 'never worked.' This recoding scheme enables comparison among those women who worked before marriage, those women who worked after marriage, those women who have worked both before and after marriage, and finally, those women who have never worked.

All questions pertaining to work asked in the Caribbean surveys related to the periods before and after birth of the first child rather than before and after the first marriage, because of the uncertainty about the accuracy of the date of the first union. In the Caribbean countries, therefore, only women who have had a live birth form the base population for the questions on work before marriage (or birth). Women who have had no live births have been excluded from analyses of pattern of work.

Occupation

The WFS-recommended occupational coding scheme is based on codes developed by the International Labour Organization and the Inter-American Statistical Institute. The scheme has attempted to separate groups in terms of skill, employment status, and type of work. The nine categories recommended by the World Fertility Survey are: (1) professional, technical, administrative, executive and managerial workers; (2) clerical and related workers; (3) sales workers; (4) self-employed farmers, farm managers and supervisors, fisherfolk, hunters, and related workers; (5) non-self employed agricultural and animal husbandry workers; (6) private household workers; (7) other service and related workers, and members of the armed forces; (8) craftsfolk, skilled and semi-skilled production workers, and transport equipment operators; and (9) unskilled workers and laborers.

Detailed information on respondent's occupation is not available in the First Country Reports for the countries included in this analysis, however, so information published by the United Nations, based on WFS Standard Recode Tapes, will be discussed.

Analysis of Educational Attainment

Whether or not women have the opportunity to acquire schooling depends on (but is by no means

limited to) the following factors: (1) specific societal norms or legislation, (2) family relationships, (3) marital status and attitude of spouse, (4) children, (5) domestic duties, and (6) availability of educational facilities and teachers.

In recent years, most governments have recognized the importance of education for their female population. Official legislation has been enacted in many countries to increase women's opportunities to obtain formal education. Yet in most parts of the developing world there are many more boys than girls enrolled in school. The educational bias is most pronounced in South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa, and parts of sub-Saharan Africa, but it exists to some extent in every region.

The reasons for the poor showing in female enrollment are in part due to family relationships. Parents may fear that education will harm their daughter's domestic role or even her spiritual qualities. A daughter's education brings fewer economic benefits if there is discrimination against her in the workplace, if she marries early and quits work, or if she ceases after marriage to have any economic obligations towards her parents. Parental support of higher education is in many cases related to the socioeconomic status of the family, but even poorer families respond to changing opportunities such as increased employment prospects for educated girls. The family also provides role models which may help motivate a woman to attend school. Marriage (or consensual union) is nearly universal. For married women, the husband's attitude toward a wife's education is obviously important.

The ability to plan the timing and number of children is crucial to educational achievement. Children add one more role, mother, to that of wife. Many young women are prevented from completing school or receiving advanced training because they are already burdened with the responsibilities of childbearing and childrearing at an early age. The cycle of pregnancy and lactation often results in poor health and nutritional deficiency which diminishes energy for self-improvement.

One of the major obstacles to women's participation in educational programs or vocational training is the fact that they already work a 16 hour day. As Votaw states, "the precious commodity of time is unavailable to them since the constant demands of domestic and agricultural duties are, in the absence of community facilities, compounded by the need to provide full-time care for young children, the elderly, and the infirm."¹⁹

Finally, the level of education attained by women or men is affected by the availability of educational

Table 1. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (or Ever-in-Union) Women and Husbands (or Partners) Who Are Illiterate, Ages 15-49 Years*: WFS Countries

COUNTRY	WOMEN		HUSBANDS	
	Percent	No. of Cases	Percent	No. of Cases
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC				
Nepal	93.8	(5940)	53.7	(5940)
Pakistan	88.0	(4952)	57.3	(4942)
Bangladesh	80.4	(6515)	55.9	(6515)
Jordan	54.8	(3610)	16.2	(3610)
Indonesia	53.8	(9155)	31.3	(9136)
Turkey	49.3	(4431)	13.0	(4431)
Malaysia	40.2	(6321)	13.5	(6321)
Sri Lanka	27.2	(6810)	8.7	(6810)
Fiji	22.5	(4928)	—	—
Korea, Republic of	18.4	(5430)	4.5	(5430)
Thailand	17.3	(3820)	7.4	(3820)
Philippines	11.5	(9268)	10.6	(9268)
(mean)	46.4		(mean)	24.7
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Peru	33.1	(5640)	10.5	(5640)
Dominican Republic	24.5	(2257)	18.5	(2257)
Mexico	19.9	(6255)	11.4	(6255)
Colombia	10.4	(3302)	13.4	(3302)
Panama	9.5	(3203)	6.7	(3203)
Costa Rica	8.9	(3037)	8.2	(3037)
Guyana	—	—	—	—
Jamaica	—	—	—	—
(mean)	17.7		(mean)	9.7

* Ages 15-49 years refer to women only; men's ages are 'all ages'.

— Questions not asked, thus data not available.

Sources: Turkey: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6.

All Other Countries: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5 (for respondents) and Table 6 (for husbands/partners).

facilities and teachers. The emphasis by development planners a few decades ago on training and higher education to meet the needs of the "modern sector" has at least partially shifted to a more widely recognized need for primary schooling and universal literacy.

Education of Women and Husbands

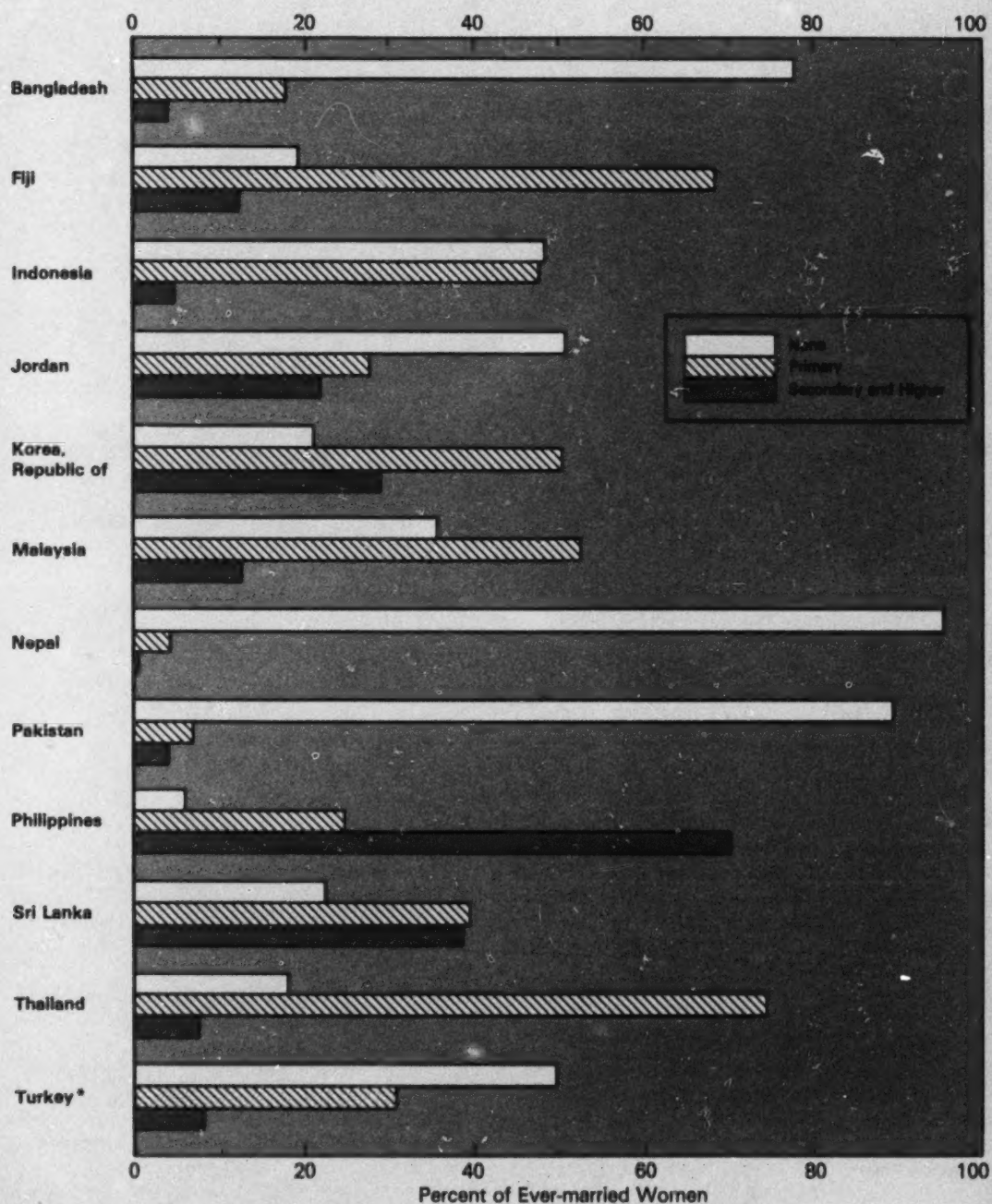
Both literacy (i.e., the ability to read) and level of schooling serve as indicators of the educational attainment of women in the 20 countries being studied. Table 1 shows the percent distribution of ever-married women and husbands who are illiterate. Female illiteracy rates range from a high of 93.8 percent of women in Nepal to a low of 8.9 percent

in Costa Rica. Higher proportions of women than men are illiterate in all countries except Colombia. The disparity is particularly pronounced in Jordan and Turkey where about half of all women are illiterate compared to only 13 percent of their husbands.

Generally, female illiteracy is more prevalent in the Asian countries (and particularly in the Islamic countries) than in the Latin American/Caribbean region. More than four women in five in Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal indicated they could not read. Peru has the highest female illiteracy in the Americas that have been surveyed in this report; one woman in three is illiterate.

The percentage distribution of ever-married women according to level of schooling attained is

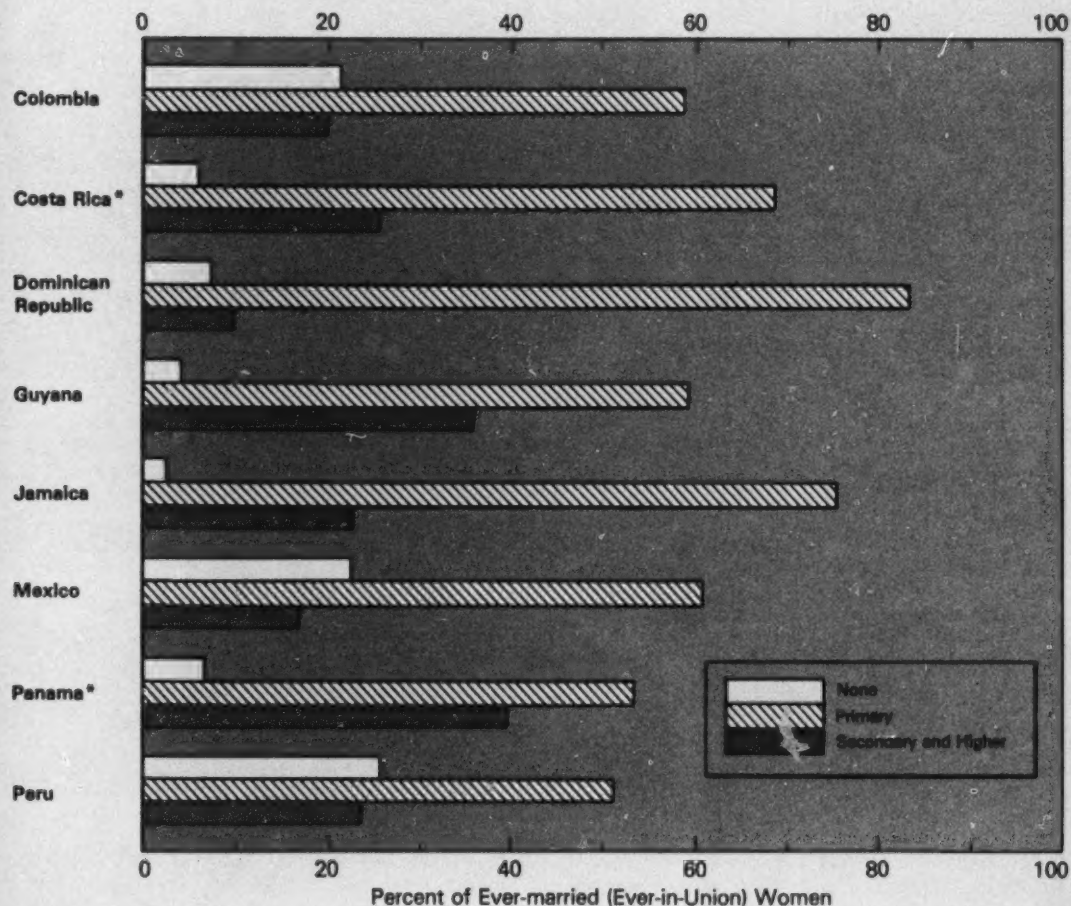
Figure 2. Percent of Ever-married Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Asia and the Pacific



* Turkey — None category not available, thus figure presented represents percent illiterate (49.3). (See footnote #4 in Appendix Table A-2). (Source: WFS, First Country Report, Table 2.2.6).

Source: Appendix Table A-2.

Figure 3. Percent of Ever-married (or Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Latin America and the Caribbean



* Refers to women aged 20-49 years.

Source: Appendix Table A-2.

shown in Figures 2 and 3. The percentage of women with no education varies widely: in Nepal, 95 percent of the women have no education; but only 2 percent are uneducated in Jamaica and 5.8 percent are uneducated in the Philippines. In half of the Asian countries surveyed, about 50 percent or more of the women have no education.

Among Latin American and Caribbean countries, on the other hand, only in Peru, Mexico, and

Colombia are as many as one-quarter of the women uneducated. Elsewhere in the Americas, the proportion with "no education" falls well under ten percent—with Guyana and Jamaica exhibiting particularly low rates.

Few women, however, have continued their schooling beyond the secondary level—whether in Asian or in Latin American/Caribbean countries (see Table 2). Only 12 percent of Filipino women

Table 2. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women and Husbands (Partners) by Secondary Level Education and Higher, Ages 15-49 Years*: WFS Countries**

COUNTRY	WOMEN				HUSBANDS			
	Total	Secun- dary	Other Higher	Univer- sity	Total	Secun- dary	Other Higher	Univer- sity
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC								
Nepal	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.0	3.3	2.1	0.7	0.5
Pakistan	3.9	3.3	0.3	0.3	24.0	19.9	2.1	2.0
Bangladesh	4.1	3.7	— 0.4 —	—	19.2	15.8	— 3.4 —	—
Indonesia	5.6	5.2	0.3	0.1	11.5	9.8	0.7	1.0
Thailand	7.5	5.0	— 2.5 —	—	16.2	11.2	— 5.0 —	—
Turkey	7.9	— 7.9 —	—	—	17.4	— 17.4 —	—	—
Malaysia	12.1	11.0	— 1.1 —	—	22.9	20.2	— 2.7 —	—
Fiji	12.4	11.1	— 1.3 —	—	18.2	15.1	— 3.1 —	—
Jordan	21.9	19.6	1.0	1.3	40.7	32.0	2.0	6.7
Korea, Rep. of	28.8	25.8	— 3.0 —	—	56.2	41.2	— 15.0 —	—
Sri Lanka	38.3	34.7	2.9	0.7	50.9	45.6	3.6	1.7
Philippines	70.1	57.7	4.8	7.6	69.8	55.4	7.0	7.4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN								
Dominican Republic	8.7	7.2	— 1.5 —	—	11.8	8.4	— 3.4 —	—
Mexico	16.9	15.6	— 1.3 —	—	20.5	14.4	— 6.1 —	—
Colombia	19.9	18.4	— 1.5 —	—	23.5	19.3	— 4.2 —	—
Peru	23.2	18.8	1.8	2.6	34.3	24.9	2.2	7.2
Costa Rica	25.5	17.1	— 8.4 —	—	27.6	18.0	— 9.6 —	—
Panama	39.9	33.3	— 6.6 —	—	43.4	33.3	— 10.1 —	—
Guyana	35.9	35.6	— 0.3 —	—	33.8	32.6	— 1.2 —	—

* Ages 15-49 years refer to women only; men's ages are 'all ages'.

** Data not available for Jamaica.

Sources: Turkey: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6.

All Other Countries: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5 (for respondents = women) and Table 6 (for husbands).

have completed secondary school, followed by Costa Rica with 8 percent and Jamaica with 7 percent. Otherwise the proportion of women having some post-secondary school education is minimal. Indeed, few women have ever attended secondary school in most countries.

Despite low secondary school attendance in the 20 countries surveyed, a majority of women in 14 countries have had at least some primary schooling. More women in Latin America than in Asia are educated at the primary level: in every Latin American country, over 50 percent of the women have attended primary school; and in some countries more than three-quarters of the women have attended primary school. In Asia, nearly 50 percent of the women from Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Fiji, or Thailand have had at least some primary

education. In most other Asian countries, approximately 20 to 40 percent of the women have a primary education except in Nepal and Pakistan (where only 4 percent and 7 percent, respectively, attended).

Large discrepancies remain between the education levels of women and those for their husbands. This situation reflects society's image of women as subordinate to men and the economic view that educating males is a better investment than educating females.

Particularly among the Asian countries, the lower the level of educational attainment for the sexes, the greater is the disparity in status between sexes. Figures 2 and 4 show that in six of the Asian countries—Jordan, Turkey, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Korea, and Fiji—the percentage of women with no

education is at least twice as high as the percentage of men with no education. As far as the Latin American countries are concerned, as can be seen in Figures 3 and 5, Peru is the only one in which women are twice as likely as males to have no education. Most other Latin American countries exhibit remarkable equality in the percentage of men and women with no education. The proportion of men with no education is higher than that of women in three countries: Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, and Jamaica.

In the Asian countries, the discrepancy between males and females at the secondary level of education also is dramatic, particularly in Bangladesh, Pakistan, Thailand, and Korea (see Table 2). The percent distribution is quite diverse, with a range for females of 0.3 percent in Nepal to 70.1 percent in the Philippines, and for males, a range of 3.3 percent in Nepal to 69.8 percent in the Philippines. As educational attainment improves the sex disparity is lessened in the Latin American/Caribbean countries. The proportion of females who have received at least a secondary education closely approximates or even surpasses that of males. (In Asia, that is the case only in the Philippines.)

The percentage of persons obtaining any education beyond the secondary level is small in the countries examined in this report, but it is interesting to observe and compare these percentages. Korea has the highest percentage of men who have obtained a university education, 15 percent. In the Philippines, about the same percentage of women (7.6) have obtained a university education as have men (7.4).

Changing Educational Attainment Over Time

Thus far, differences in women's educational attainment have been noted among the 20 countries being surveyed. Equally, if not more, important are differences over time within countries. Limited access to opportunity prevents women from active participation in economic life or it leads women into unskilled and low-paying jobs. Unequal educational and consequently work opportunities hinder development because the economic potential of half of the population is left unrealized. Has progress occurred in this area so vital to improving the status of women? WFS data indicate the answer is yes.

Educational attainment is a completed variable. That is to say, in most cases, particularly in developing countries, schooling is terminated by age

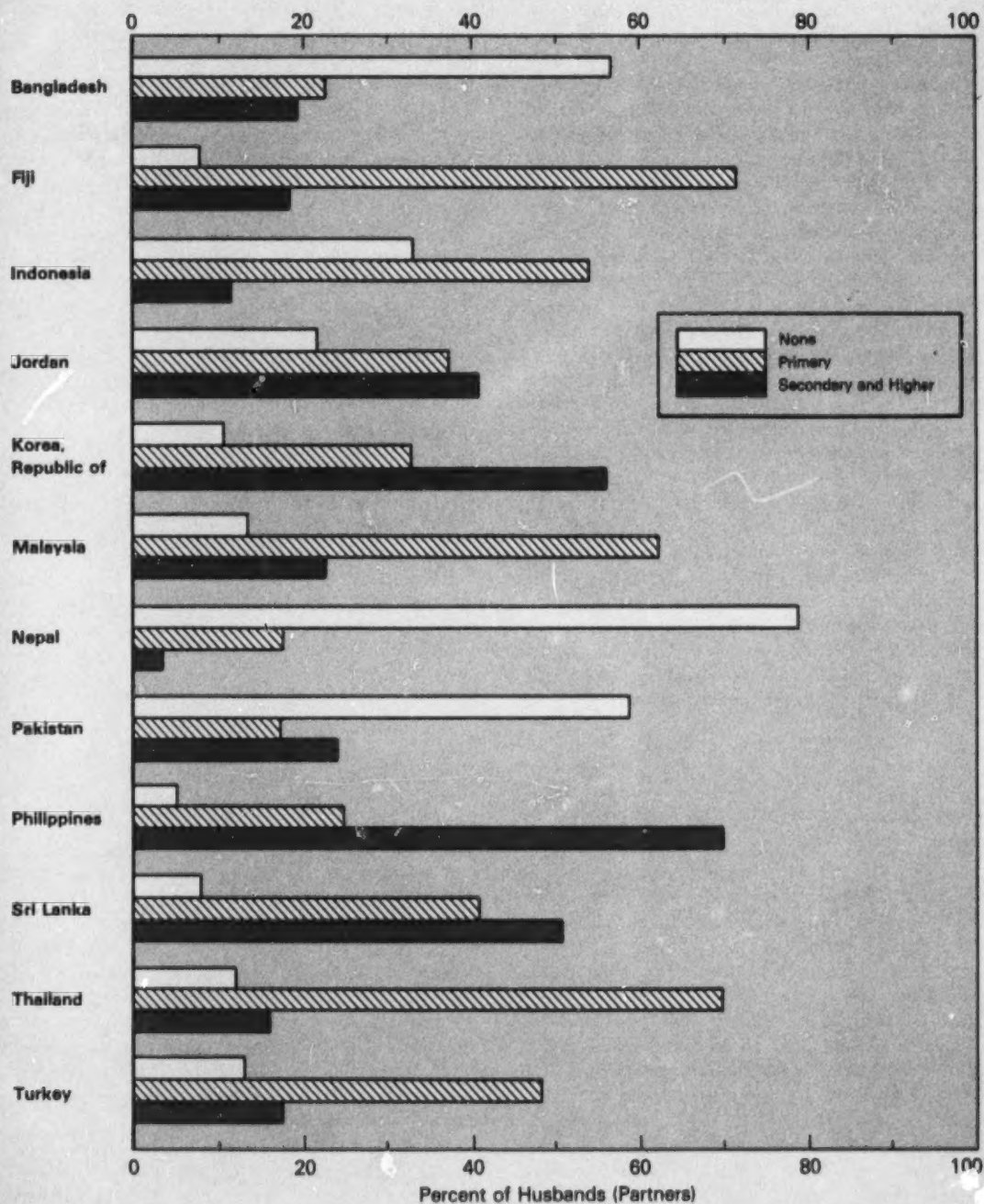
15 or 20. Thus, the educational attainment of women aged 45-49 years, in fact, reflects the social situation that existed some 25 years ago. On the other hand, the educational attainment of women 15-24 approximates the current situation. As Figures 6 and 7 show, educational progress has indeed been occurring in almost all the countries included in this report. In some instances, progress could even be termed dramatic. Looking first at changes in the proportion of women who have had no schooling whatsoever, that proportion has fallen significantly in most countries over the past quarter of a century (see Figure 6). In Malaysia, for example, nearly 70 percent of the oldest women (i.e., aged 45-49 years) had received no education; in contrast, only 12 percent of their youngest counterparts (i.e., aged 15-24 years) were without such training. Korea has also exhibited marked progress; women with no schooling dropped from 53 percent to 2 percent.

The three countries having the largest percentage of women without any education showed the least progress of all (i.e., Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh). Even among the youngest women, the proportion without schooling was 92 percent in Nepal, 87 percent in Pakistan, and 71 percent in Bangladesh. Three other countries, where about one-half of all women had received no education (i.e., Jordan, Indonesia, and Turkey), exhibited marked improvement over the 25 year period. Progress in Latin America, as measured by a decline in the percent of women with no education, was less notable, given the already lower proportion of uneducated women in general.

Increases in the proportion of women who have had some primary education are particularly prevalent in Indonesia, Turkey, and Jordan especially in the two youngest age groups (see Figure 7). In Malaysia the proportion of women with some primary education has more than doubled, from 28 percent (among women aged 45-49 years) to 67 percent (among women aged 15-24 years). In Sri Lanka and the Philippines the percentage of women with a primary education is higher among older females than younger females. This anomaly occurs because larger percentages of younger women have attained an education beyond the primary level and are, thus, excluded from this category. An increase in the proportion of women who have a primary education is also evident among the Latin American countries, particularly Peru.

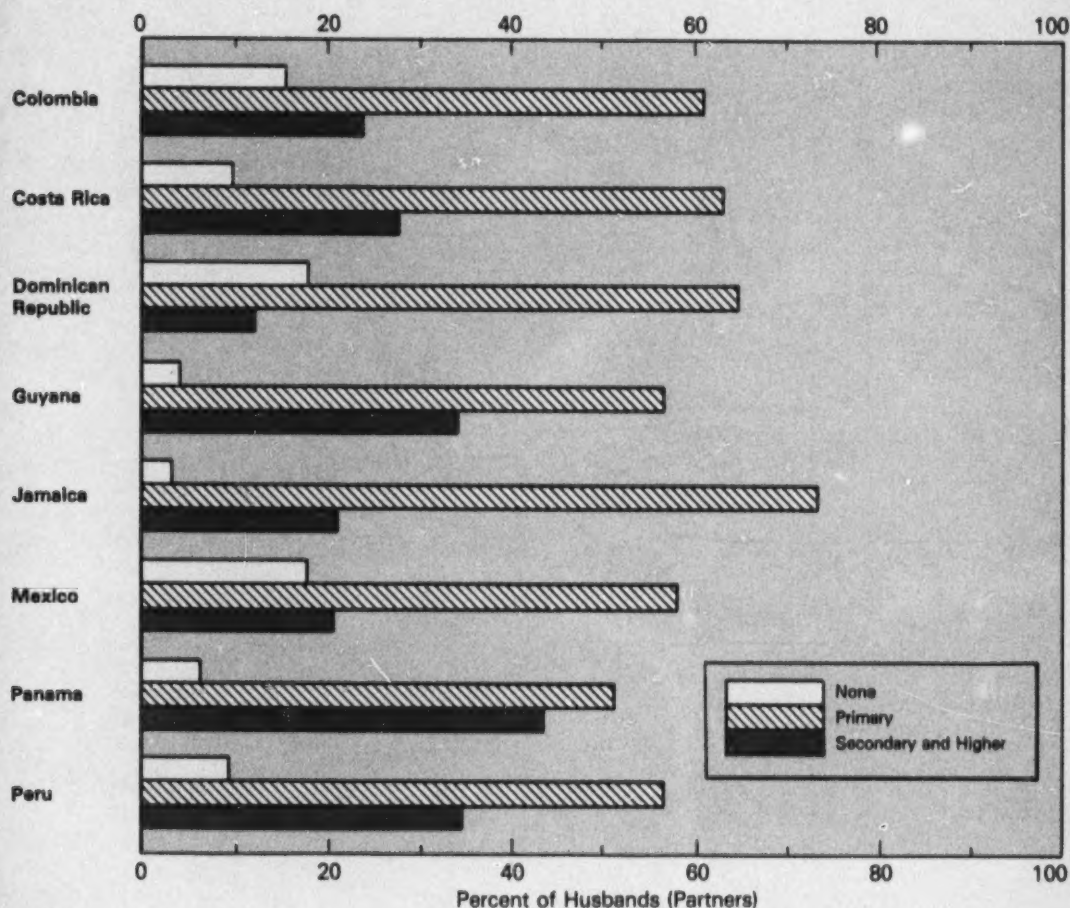
An examination of changes which have occurred in the proportion of women who have received a secondary or higher education (see Figure 8) shows progress in most of the 20 countries. This is par-

Figure 4. Percent of Husbands (Partners) by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, All Ages: WFS Countries, Asia and the Pacific



Source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 6.

Figure 5. Percent of Husbands (Partners) by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, All Ages: WFS Countries, Latin America and the Caribbean

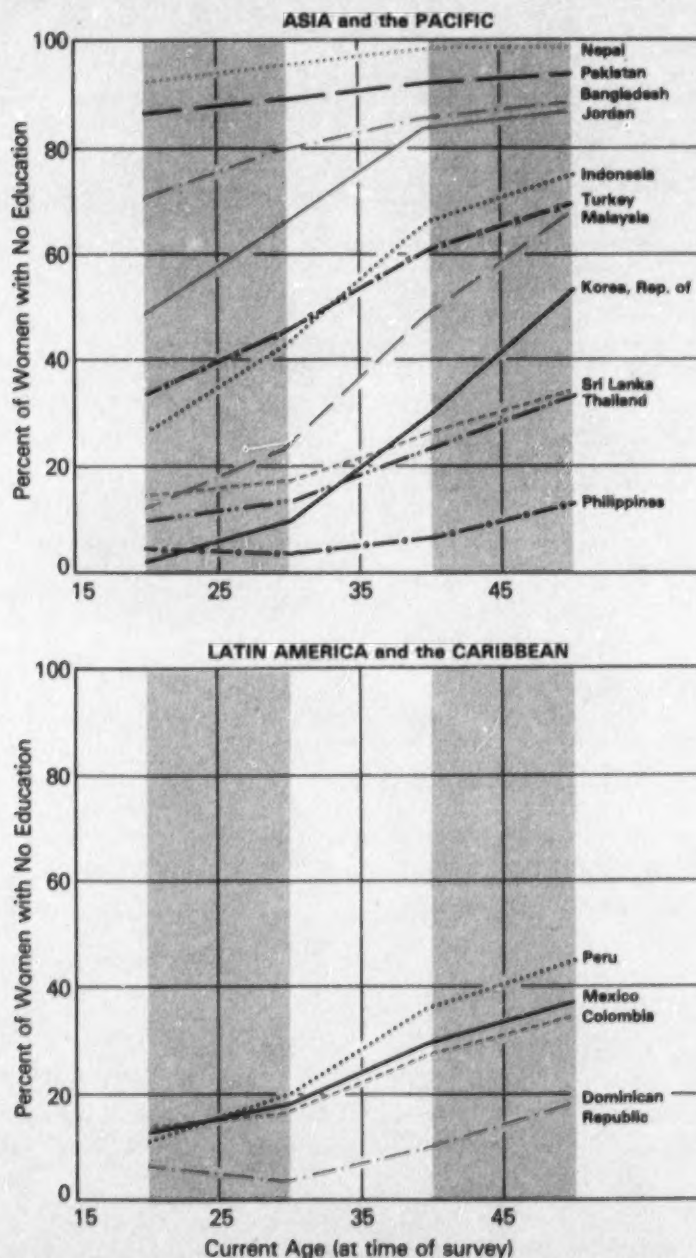


Source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 6.

ticularly true in Korea, Sri Lanka, and the Philippines. In the Philippines, nearly 80 percent of the youngest women have attended secondary schools. The increases made by other Asian countries, though not as dramatic, are steady and recent and should not be overlooked. In particular, the proportion of women with a secondary or higher education in Jordan and Malaysia has increased from roughly 5 percent to 20 percent. Little improvement was noted

in the three countries with the lowest overall educational levels for women. Progress was also evident in every country in Latin America, with Jamaica and Guyana showing particularly dramatic increases. In Guyana, roughly 28 percent of the 25-34 year olds had at least a secondary education; but the proportion for the youngest age group is about 75 percent—a large increase in such a short period of time.

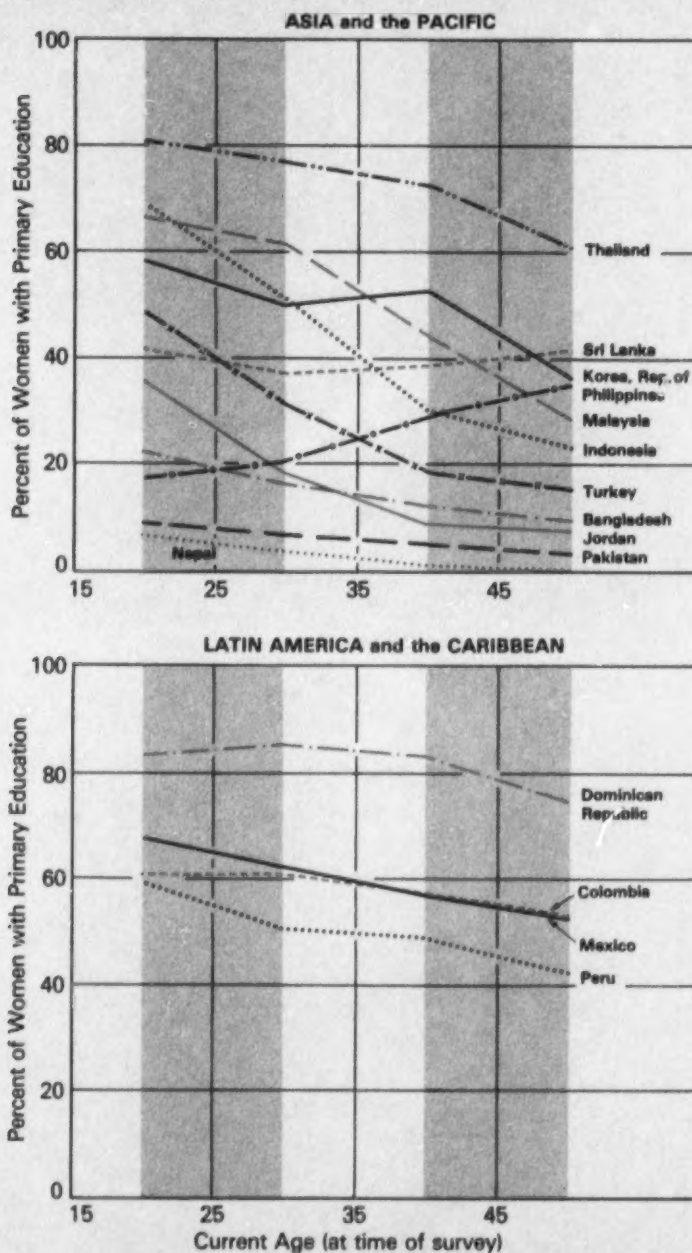
Figure 6. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women with No Education by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years); Panama and Costa Rica (ages grouped as 20-29 years, 30-39 years, and 40-49 years); and Guyana and Jamaica (none and primary could not be distinguished; education grouped as less than 4 years and 4 plus years).

Source: Appendix Table A-2.

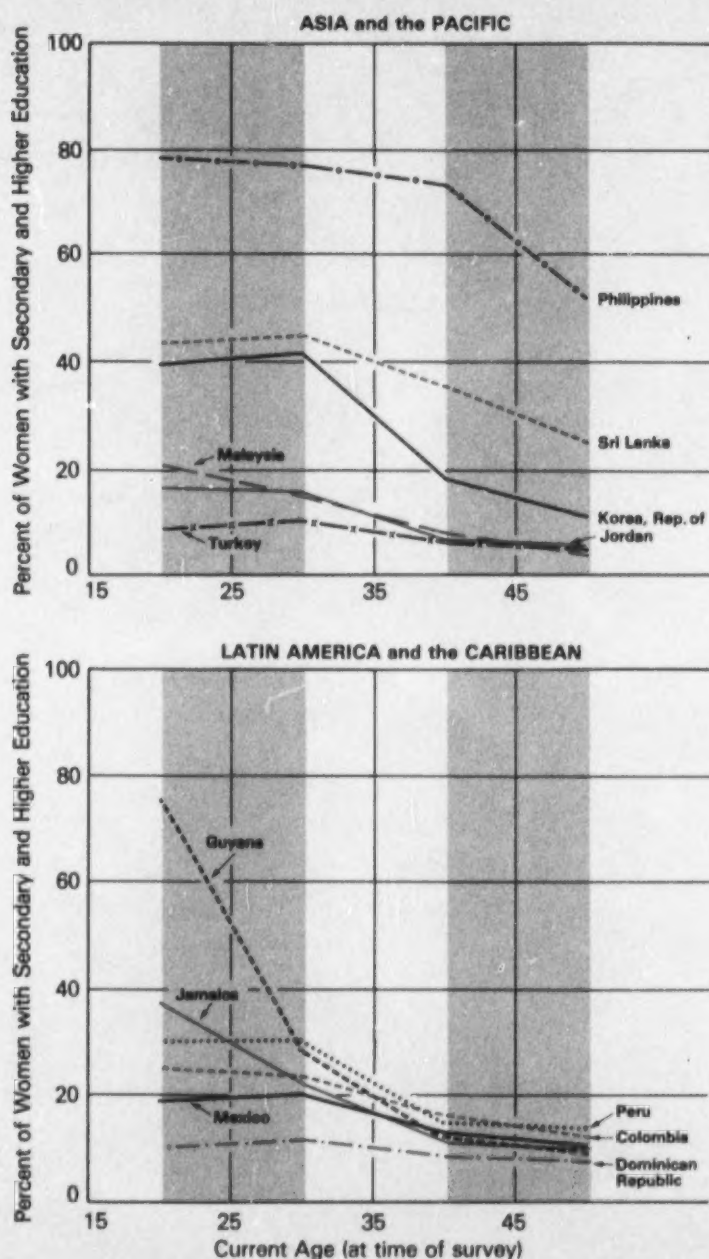
Figure 7. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women with Primary Education by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years); Costa Rica and Panama (ages grouped as 20-29, 30-39, and 40-49 years); and Guyana and Jamaica (none and primary could not be distinguished).

Source: Appendix Table A-2.

Figure 8. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women with Secondary and Higher Education by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, and Thailand not shown due to clarity of graphic presentation since all levels are too small and show little variation with regards to the range of the data by age (all less than 10 percent). Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years); and Panama and Costa Rica (ages grouped as 20-29, 30-39, and 40-49 years).

Source: Appendix Table A-2.

Table 3. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries

	CURRENT RESIDENCE		No. of Cases
COUNTRY	Urban	Rural	
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC			
Bangladesh	7.9	92.1	(6515)
Fiji	35.8 ^a	64.2	(4928)
Indonesia	15.5	84.4	(9103)
Jordan	70.1	29.9	(3611)
Korea, Rep. of	52.3	47.7 ^b	(5420)
Malaysia	16.2	83.8 ^c	(6313)
Nepal*	2.2 ^d	94.9	(5940)
Pakistan	26.6	73.3	(4948)
Philippines	32.1	67.9	(9268)
Sri Lanka	18.4	81.6 ^e	(6813)
Thailand	14.6	85.4	(3776)
Turkey	50.3	49.7	(4431)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN			
Colombia	64.3	35.6	(3302)
Costa Rica	51.9	48.1	(3037)
Dominican Republic	50.7	49.3	(2256)
Guyana	36.1	63.9	(3616)
Jamaica	47.7	52.3	(2765)
Mexico	58.4 ^f	41.6	(6255)
Panama	69.3	30.7	(3203)
Peru	63.9 ^g	36.0	(5640)

^a Nepal does not include 2.8 percent 'not stated', thus total does not sum to 100.0 percent.

^b (Fiji) Includes 16.2 percent City and 19.6 percent Town.

^c (Korea) Includes 7.6 percent Town and 40.1 percent Rural.

^d (Malaysia) Includes 15.0 percent Town and 68.8 percent Rural.

^e (Nepal) Includes 0.6 percent City/Metropolitan and 1.6 percent Town. In WFS First Country Report (Volume I) this variable was not used. It was replaced by region of residence: Hills 50.2 percent; Terai 41.1 percent; Mountains 7.6 percent; and Other/Not Stated 1.1 percent.

^f (Sri Lanka) Includes 72.2 percent Rural and 9.4 percent Estate.

^g (Mexico) Includes 27.6 percent City or Metropolitan and 30.8 percent Town.

Sources: Bangladesh, Korea, Philippines, Guyana, Jamaica, and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.7; Malaysia, Pakistan, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, and Panama: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.5; Thailand and Turkey: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6; Jordan and Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.2.1; Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C3; Indonesia: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.8; Mexico: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.1.0; and Nepal: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 1, p. 6.

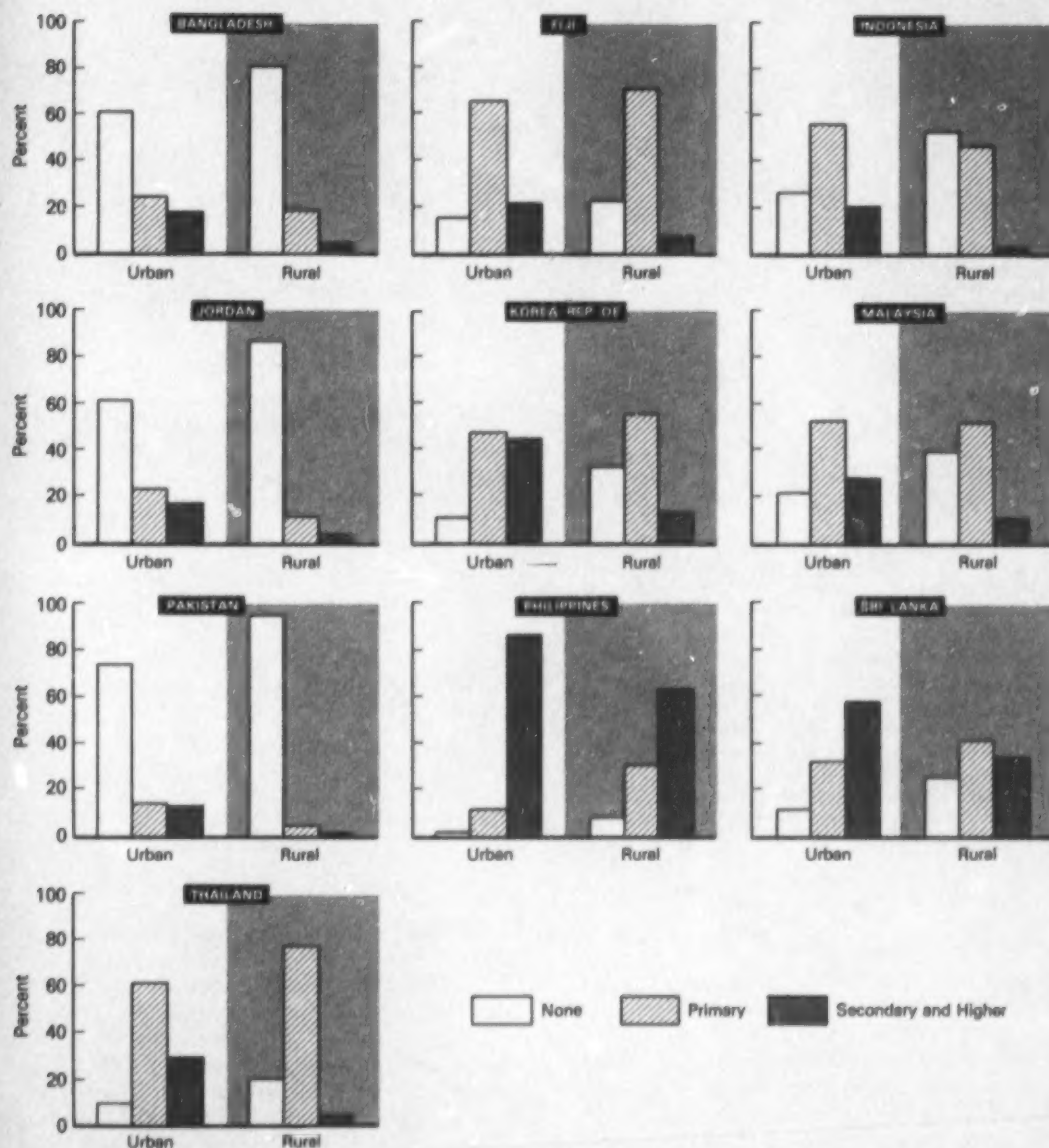
Residence and Education

The status of women is often considered to be higher in countries with more advanced levels of development and modernity. Since urbanization tends to be more widespread in the more modernized countries, it might be expected that women would enjoy a higher status. This may occur because city life tends to erode many traditional forms of social life associated with low female status. Obviously, however, this is no more than a broad generalization since many other factors are involved in the process of urbanization as the review below shows. Table

3 indicates the percent distribution of women currently residing in urban and rural areas.

Between countries, residence does not appear to affect educational attainment. The three countries with the least educational attainment levels are rural. In Jordan, however, a country with a high proportion of uneducated women, 70 percent of the female population resides in cities. The Philippines is two-thirds rural, yet a large proportion of women have been educated at the secondary level. Because other factors are involved, it is impossible to arrive at a clear-cut country level relationship between these variables.

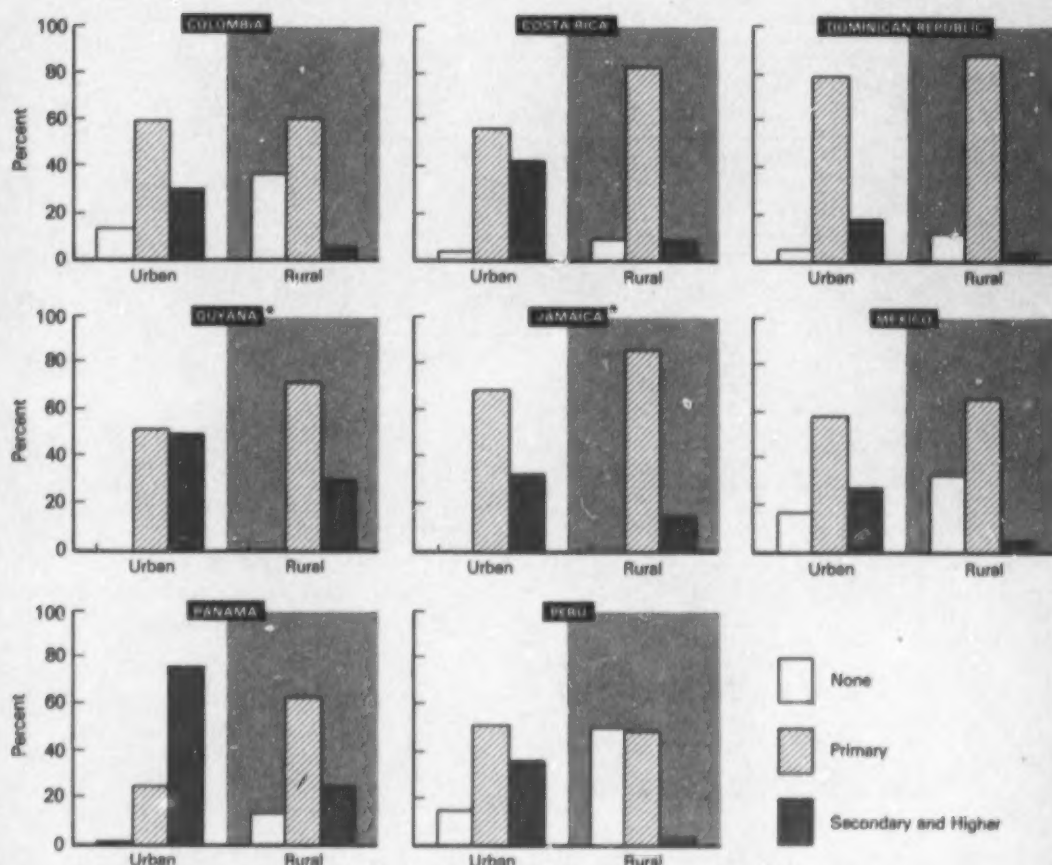
Figure 9. Percent of Ever-married Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Asia and the Pacific*



* Nepal and Turkey not shown since data not available in WFS First Country Reports.

Source: Appendix Table A-3.

Figure 10. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Latin America and the Caribbean



* Category 'No Education' could not be analyzed for Guyana or Jamaica since data not available in WFS First Country Reports.

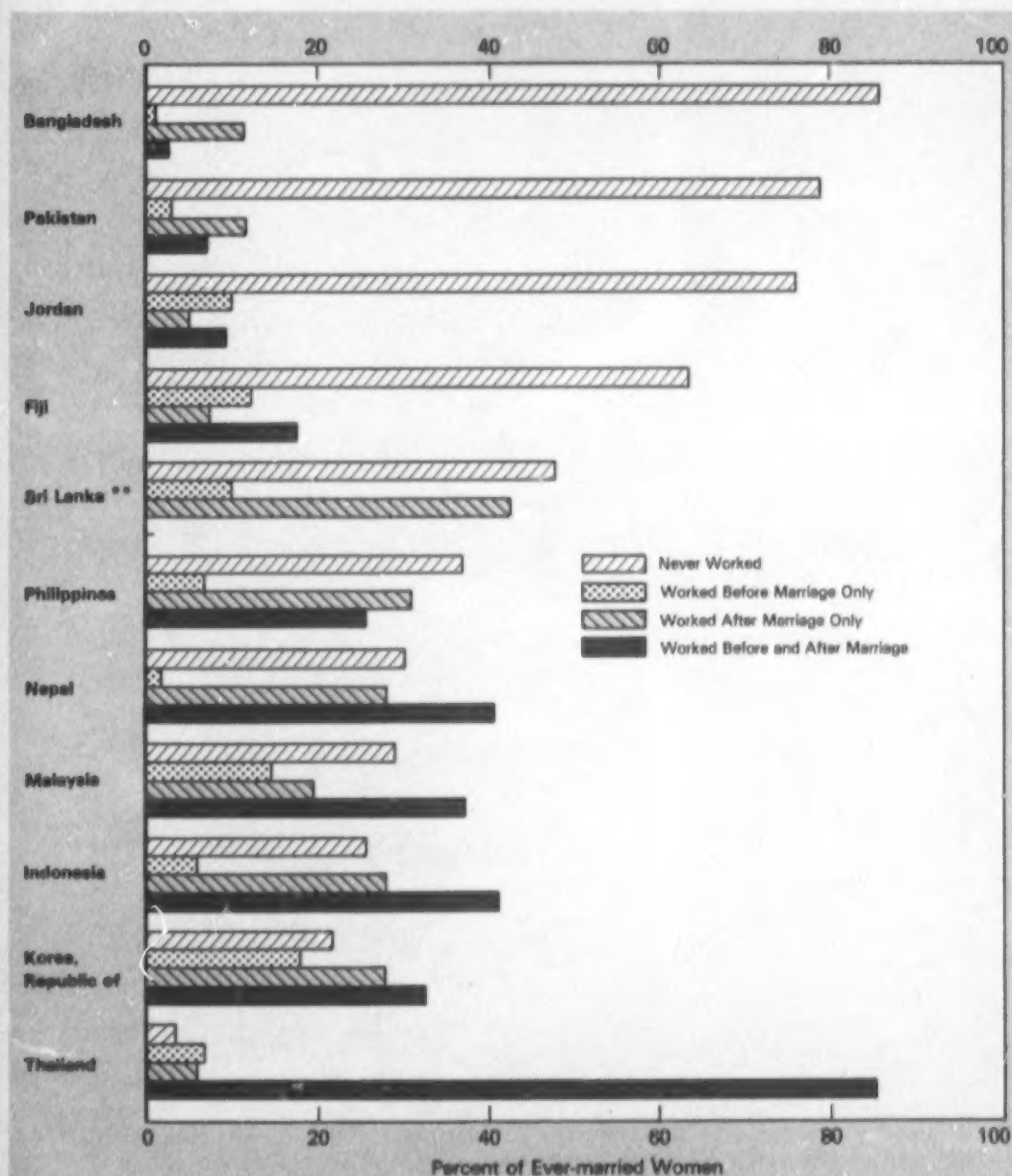
Source: Appendix Table A-3.

Within the countries, however, educational attainment among women is affected by urban or rural residence. Figures 9 and 10 show that in all countries, without exception, urban women are better educated than their rural counterparts. For example, the proportion of women with no education by urban and rural residence are 60.2 and 79.3 respectively in Bangladesh; 60.6 and 86.8 in Jor-

dan; 73.8 and 95.0 in Pakistan (see Figure 9). For those Asian countries with relatively high levels of education, the proportion of women with at least some secondary schooling rises according to urban residence.

Similar differences by residence are noted in Latin America and the Caribbean (see Figure 10). Rural residents are at least twice as likely to have had no

Figure 11. Percent of Ever-married Women by Pattern of Work, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Asia and the Pacific*

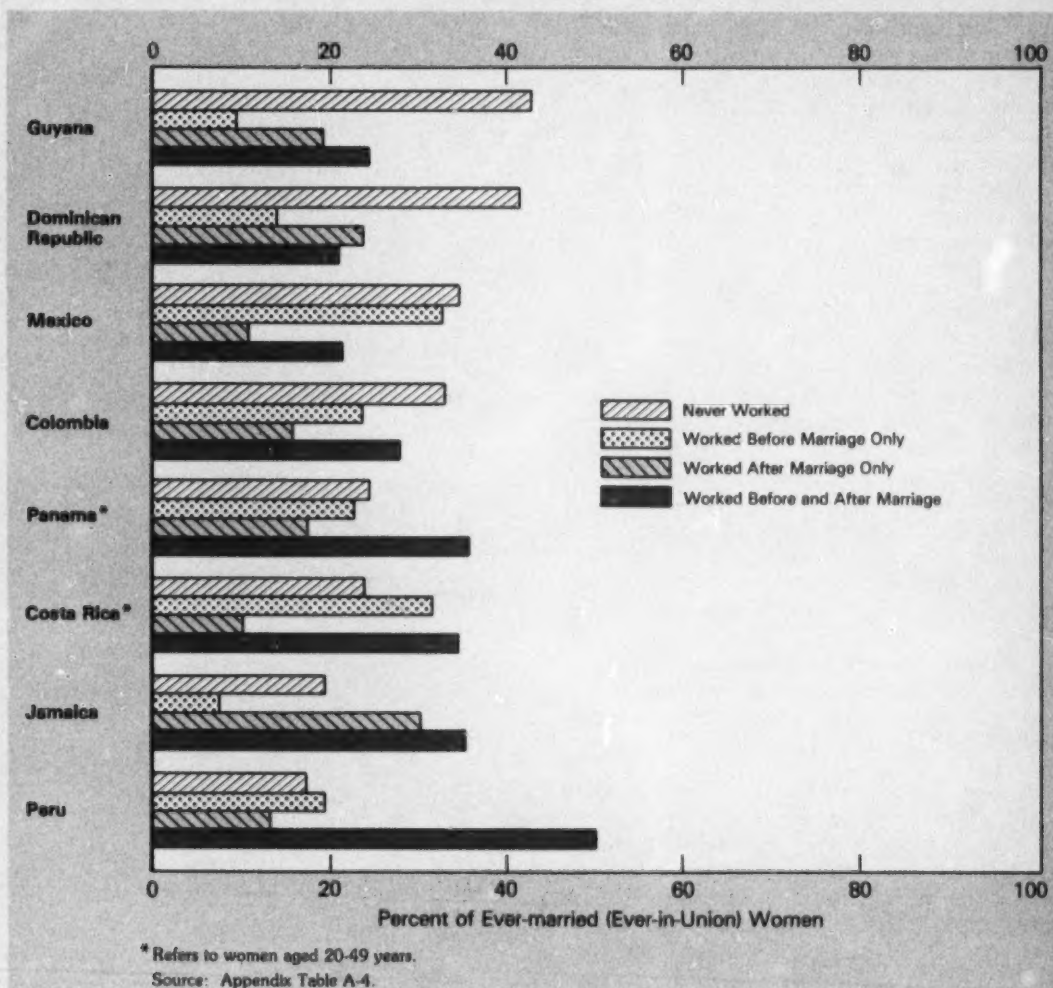


* Turkey not shown since pattern of work data not available in WFS First Country Report.

** Sri Lanka -- 'Before and After Marriage' category not available in First Country Report.

Source: Appendix Table A-4.

Figure 12. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries, Latin America and the Caribbean



education as urban residents. Urban residents are three times as likely to have continued their schooling beyond the primary level. Panama's rural-urban differential is particularly noticeable. Less than one percent of urban women have had no education compared to 13 percent of rural women. Similarly,

while only one-quarter of rural women have attended secondary schools, no less than three-quarters of the urban women have had this amount of schooling. Differences in other countries of the region, while similar, are not as pronounced.

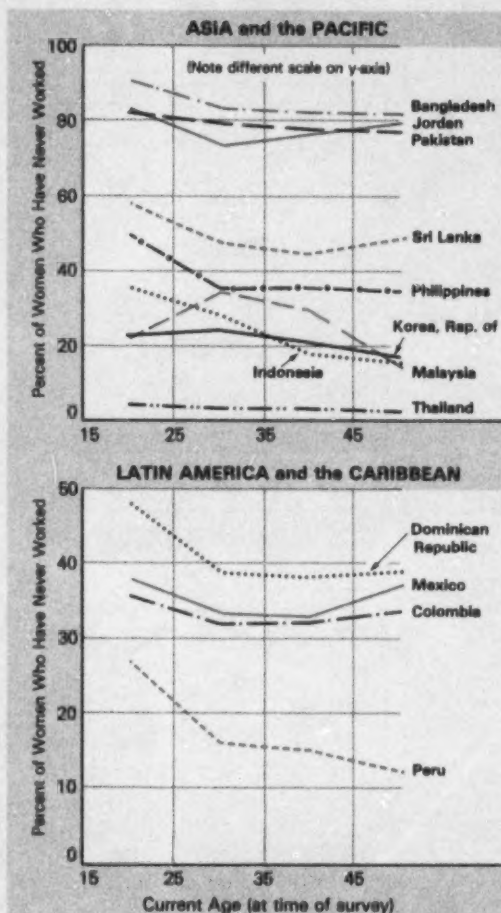
Analysis of Employment Patterns

Upgrading women's productive activities to income-generating employment outside the home is among the most promising of the many solutions proposed to the problems of persistent poverty and high fertility in developing countries. Nonagricultural paid employment that expands the range of economic and social rewards available to women is particularly important because it can promote rural development, raise the status of women, and induce a decline in fertility by changing the character of family and reproductive behavior.^{20, 21}

Status is often measured by the amount of autonomy and economic independence women gain through the sources of income available to them. It has been argued that the lack of control over income in poor households contributes to the low status of women. Monetary distribution between husband and wife is seen as crucial to determining the power structure of the decision-making unit. A woman earning half of the household income will likely have more bargaining power than the woman who earns none. Whether a woman directs her power toward delayed marriage for herself or her daughter, or toward the practice of birth control, may depend on the extent to which she is exposed to social rewards other than marriage and childbearing. In addition, married women earning an income may feel less dependent on family members, particularly sons, for economic survival.²²

However, an incontrovertible relationship should not be assumed between economic development on the macro level and women's increased labor force participation. Some countries are less developed despite high employment participation by women; others achieve a high level of development or productivity with relatively little female labor force participation. As the economy advances in countries where there is a high female participation rate in the subsistence sector, the growth of women's employment in the modern sector may be slower than the decline of employment in the subsistence sector. In this case, the total participation rate might fall. Furthermore, Durand has stated that, "economic development and modernization may bring either an increase or decrease in participation in the labor force, depending on the cultural setting and other circumstances in the country."²³ The importance of cultural variables as determinants of labor force participation cannot be sufficiently stressed, especially in the context of cross-cultural analysis.

Figure 13. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Have Never Worked by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Panama and Costa Rica (ages grouped as 20-29 years, 30-39 years, and 40-49 years); and Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years). Guyana, Jamaica, and Nepal not shown since data not available by age in WFS First Country Reports.

Source: Appendix Table A-4.

Patterns of Work

As the data in Figure 11 indicate, in Asian countries the proportion of women who have never worked varies considerably. Very few women in Asia have worked only before marriage. A more common pattern is employment both before and after marriage. In Sri Lanka, Nepal, Malaysia, and Indonesia, for example, about 40 percent of women have worked both before and after marriage, and in Thailand, over 85 percent have worked both before and after marriage.

Work patterns are more evenly distributed in the Latin American and Caribbean countries (see Figure 12). The proportion of women who have never worked is less than 50 percent in all countries in the region. In contrast to Asian women, roughly one-third of women in Mexico and Costa Rica, and one-quarter in Colombia and Panama, have worked only before marriage. In Jamaica, Panama, and Costa Rica, approximately one-third of the women have worked both before and after marriage. In Peru, this proportion reaches 50 percent—the highest in the region.

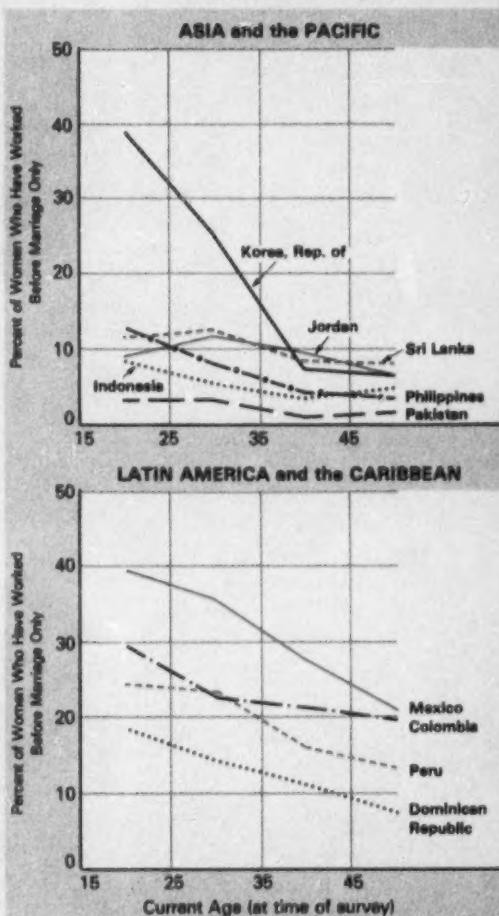
Patterns of Work by Age

Patterns of work by age are shown in Figures 13, 14, and 15. In most countries, the proportion of women who have never worked is illustrated by a U-shaped pattern. In Korea and Malaysia, however, an inverted U-shaped pattern is revealed. An increase in age at marriage may be the reason why a larger proportion of younger women are working before marriage. This may also reflect a new approach to work by these younger women, or improved work opportunities.

The proportion of women who have worked only after marriage increases with age, as would be expected, given the longer exposure to that possibility. The proportion increases steadily through age 40 in both Asia and Latin America and generally levels off between ages 40 and 49.

In Asia, the proportion of women who have worked both before and after marriage also increases until age 40, and then either levels off or decreases in later ages. The trend is similar in Latin America, except in Peru, where the proportion of women who have worked before and after marriage increases from 40 percent in the youngest age groups to 60 percent in the oldest age group.

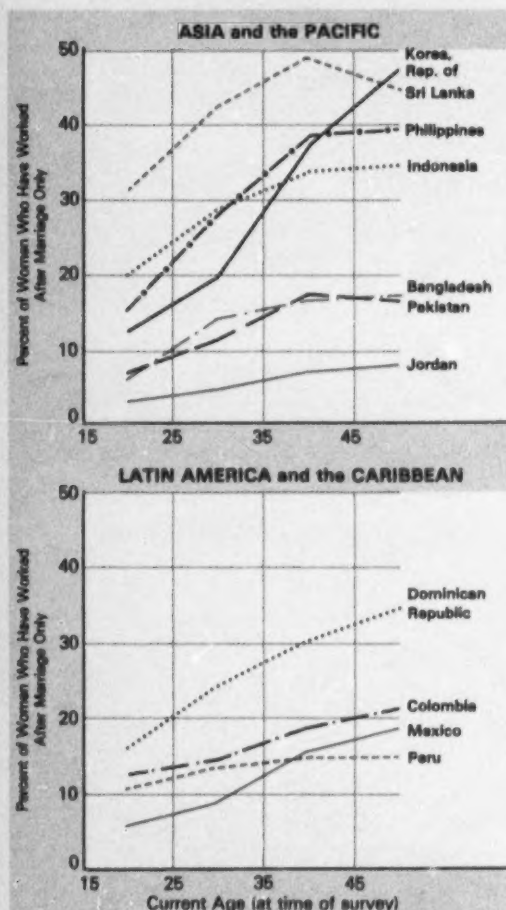
Figure 14. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Have Worked Before Marriage Only by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Panama and Costa Rica (ages grouped as 20-29 years, 30-39 years, and 40-49 years); and Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years). Guyana, Jamaica, and Nepal not shown since data not available by age in WFS First Country Reports. Malaysia and Thailand not shown since data not available. Bangladesh not shown since the proportions are too small.

Source: Appendix Table A-4.

Figure 15. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Have Worked After Marriage Only by Current Age: WFS Countries*



* Due to non-comparability of data, the following countries are not shown: Panama and Costa Rica (ages grouped as 20-29 years, 30-39 years, and 40-49 years); and Fiji (age available only as less than 30 years and 30 plus years). Guyana, Jamaica, and Nepal not shown since data not available by age in WFS First Country Reports. Malaysia and Thailand not shown since data not available.

Source: Appendix Table A-4.

Education and Patterns of Work

It is difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding the effect of educational attainment on patterns of work (see Appendix Table A-5 for data). One might expect that the higher the level of education, the greater the probability a woman has worked. However, no particular pattern can be discerned from the data.

In Fiji, Jordan, and Costa Rica, there is a clear relationship in the expected direction. More than three times as many educated women have worked before and after marriage than those with no education. On the other hand, in Indonesia, Korea, Sri Lanka, and Peru, those with the most education are the least likely to have worked. Difference by educational attainment are minimal in the Philippines.

Residence and Patterns of Work

Similarly, the question arises of the possible relationship between residence and patterns of work: Are urban women more likely or less likely to have had any work experience than their rural counterparts?

As with education, these data—based on 11 countries—do not follow for any broad generalization (see Appendix Table A-6 for data). In Bangladesh, Fiji, and the Philippines, urban women are more likely than rural women to have worked at some time in the past. In Indonesia, Jordan, Korea, and Sri Lanka the opposite is true. In Indonesia, 41 percent of urban women have never worked, compared to only 22 percent of rural women. Differences by residence are negligible in Pakistan.

In the three Latin American countries for which data are available, urban women are more likely than rural women to have worked. In Costa Rica and Jamaica, urban women are almost twice as likely as women in the countryside to have worked at some time in their lives, but in Peru the differential is much smaller.

Assessing women's status in terms of their pattern of paid employment is difficult. The relationship between educational attainment and employment on the one hand and residence and employment on the other, while strong in some countries, does not follow any definitive pattern. Several factors contribute to the limitation of the work pattern variable as a useful indicator of women's status. First, among women who have worked, it is not possible to determine the extent to which women have worked full-time or part-time (however that may be de-

Table 4. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Are Currently Working by Pattern of Work, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries*

	CURRENTLY WORKING			
COUNTRY	Also Before Marriage	Not Before Marriage	Total	No. of Cases
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC				
Thailand	77.5	4.7	82.2	(3820)
Nepal	39.8	27.1	66.9	(5940)
Indonesia	39.2	26.3	65.5	(9155)
Korea, Rep. of	25.8	23.3	49.1	(5430)
Malaysia	30.0	16.2	46.2	(6321)
Philippines	18.0	26.3	44.3	(9268)
Sri Lanka	22.7	13.8	36.5	(6810)
Fiji	12.5	5.2	17.7 ^a	(4928)
Pakistan	7.1	10.0	17.1	(4952)
Bangladesh	2.1	10.1	12.2	(6515)
Jordan	6.8	3.0	9.8	(3612)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Peru	40.9	9.8	50.7	(5640)
Jamaica	18.0	15.0	33.9 ^b	(2766)
Panama	22.4	10.7	33.1	(3203)
Guyana	14.9	12.1	27.0	(3616)
Costa Rica	20.0	6.5	26.5	(3037)
Colombia	17.3	8.6	25.9	(3302)
Dominican Republic	11.2	10.6	21.8	(2257)
Mexico	13.4	6.9	20.3	(6255)

* Data not available for Turkey.

^a Currently Working includes those women who have worked any time in the last 12 months in addition to those who were working at the time of the survey.

^b Currently Working includes those women who worked before first birth, those women who did not work before first birth, and those women with no live birth.

Source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 7.

fined). Second, data on the type of work performed are unavailable for most countries from published WFS First Country Reports. (Data are available, however, on women's current participation in the agricultural and nonagricultural sectors. These data are discussed in a later section.) Third, the data do not indicate how recent the work experience is, nor whether the pattern of work has been continuous, or of long duration. It is still useful, however, to examine current employment among women in the 20 countries surveyed.

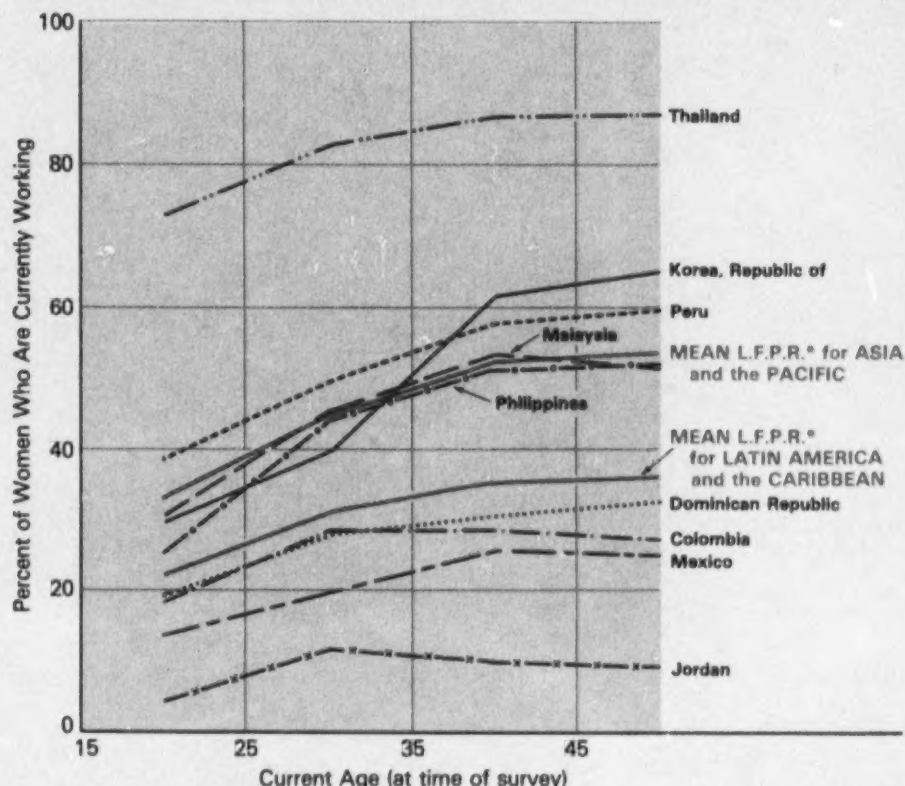
Current Employment

Table 4 shows the percent distribution of ever-married women who are currently working. Among Asian countries this percentage varies more widely than among Latin American countries: from 82 percent in Thailand to only 10 percent in Jordan; and

from 51 percent in Peru to 20 percent in Mexico. Despite lower levels of development (as measured by per capita GNP and Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI) in Appendix Table A-1), the rates for many Asian countries are higher than those for Latin America. Nepal, for example, which has the lowest GNP (U.S. \$120) and PQLI (27) in Asia, has a remarkably high 67 percent of women currently working. Mexico, by contrast, has a high GNP (U.S. \$1,090) and high PQLI (75), yet has a very low female labor force participation rate (20 percent).

This pattern can be seen even more clearly in Figure 16 showing current employment patterns by age. The mean labor force participation rates for Asia are substantially higher than the mean rates for Latin America at each age. It would be interesting to disaggregate these age-specific participation rates by urban and rural residence, but this

Figure 16. Percent of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Are Currently Working by Current Age: Selected WFS Countries



* L.F.P.R. = labor force participation rate.

Source: Appendix Table A-7.

is not possible with the available published data. It is possible, however, to see how the total current employment rates break down by urban and rural residence (see Table 4). Table 5 shows that in two out of the three countries in Asia for which data were available, (Korea and the Philippines), activity rates were twice as high in the rural areas than in the urban areas. Among the three Latin American countries, on the other hand, activity rates in the urban areas were substantially higher.

* *Participation in the Agricultural and Nonagricultural Sectors*

In discussing employment patterns, it is useful to consider measures of women's participation in the agricultural and nonagricultural sectors. The Population Division of the United Nations provides employment figures by occupation for women in the labor force after marriage and for husbands in the labor force in 11 of the 20 countries surveyed.

Table 5. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women Who Are Currently Working by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY	CURRENT RESIDENCE		No. of Cases
	Urban	Rural	
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC			
Jordan	59.3	40.7	(354)
Korea, Rep. of	34.4	65.6	(2669)
Philippines	31.3	68.7	(4109)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN			
Costa Rica	68.9	31.1	(804)
Jamaica*	61.5	38.5	(1083)
Peru	56.9	43.1	(2855)

* Currently Working includes those women who worked before first birth, those women who did not work before first birth, and those women with no live birth.

Sources: WFS First Country Reports, Table 2.2.7.L, except Costa Rica (Table 0.0.3), Jamaica (Table 2.2.7.J), and Peru (Table 2.2.7.G).

Using occupation data provided by the WFS Standard Recode Tapes (SRTs), the United Nations devised a four-way coding scheme for a cross-cultural comparative analysis of the occupations of respondents and their husbands.

The four-way coding scheme is as follows: (1) Modern, (2) Transitional, (3) Mixed, and (4) Traditional.

(1) Modern. This group is comprised of professional and clerical occupation categories for both men and women. It includes men and women who have made investments in educational attainment, who live in urban areas, who work away from home, and who are employed by someone outside the family. There is a high degree of incompatibility with childrearing. These occupations are highly valued in society and are characterized by high earnings and a high standard of living.

(2) Transitional. These occupations can be viewed as transitional between the Modern and the Tra-

ditional. For women, this group is comprised of Household and Service categories. The actual type of work may be "traditional" in nature (e.g., household work), but the circumstances under which it is performed present a gradual break from the traditional environment (e.g., the woman travels into the city to wash and clean for someone else). For men the occupations are comprised of Sales and Services (including Household) categories. The husbands in this group live in urban areas and have a fairly high level of education, income, and standard of living.

(3) Mixed. For women, this group comprises the Sales, Skilled, and Unskilled categories. This may involve either rural or urban jobs which require a certain level of training or skill (e.g., women may grow or make products at home, then sell them in the market). This group is "mixed" in the context of cross-national comparisons since the relative importance of the traditional and modern aspects will vary from country to country and characteristics of the job will change as development progresses. For men, this group comprises the Skilled and Unskilled categories. These occupations are more closely tied to the traditional sector and are more likely to have less socioeconomic status than either the Modern or Transitional groups. These men have less education, lower incomes, and lower standards of living due to the traditional nature of some of the jobs.

(4) Traditional. This group contains the Farm and Agricultural categories for both men and women, and represents the traditional, non-modern rural sector. Educational attainment, income, and standard of living are lowest for this group. These occupations are frequently compatible with and even conducive to high levels of fertility. Except for countries with an overwhelming majority of agricultural workers, this group generally has the lowest level of socioeconomic status. In primarily agricultural countries, however, such factors as amount of land owned or size of herds might be better indicators of social status than links with the modern sector.²⁴

Table 6 shows, among women who have ever worked after marriage, the proportion who have worked in each occupational group.* This table also shows the percentage of all husbands in the

*These figures are not strictly comparable with the earlier patterns of work figures. Previously, figures were obtained for women who worked only before marriage, only after marriage, both before and after marriage, or women currently working. Here, figures are for women who have ever worked after marriage (a breakdown not possible using the WFS First Country Reports).

Table 6. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women in the Labor Force After Marriage and Husbands (Partners) in the Labor Force by Occupational Classification, Ages 15-49 Years*: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY	OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION ^a				No. of Cases	Percent of Total Sample
	Modern	Transitional	Mixed	Traditional		
<i>Women</i>						
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC						
Bangladesh	3.6	45.2	43.3	7.9	(881)	13.5
Indonesia ^b	—	—	—	—	—	—
Jordan	30.4	4.7	26.2	38.7	(511)	14.1
Korea, Rep. of ^c	3.8	26.2	15.7	54.2	(3281)	60.5
Malaysia	8.2	8.8	21.4	61.6	(3583)	56.7
Sri Lanka	9.4	2.9	23.4	64.2	(2537)	37.3
Thailand	4.3	2.1	20.4	73.1	(3453)	90.4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN						
Colombia	16.9	35.1	37.7	10.3	(1440)	43.6
Guyana ^b	—	—	—	—	—	—
Panama	36.3	38.5	21.7	3.5	(1702)	53.1
Peru	11.8	12.7	39.1	36.4	(3515)	62.3
<i>Husbands</i>						
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC						
Bangladesh ^b	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indonesia	7.8	18.3	16.6	56.7	(9100)	99.4
Jordan	18.1	39.7	34.3	7.8	(3608)	99.9
Korea, Rep. of	16.7	16.9	31.4	34.2	(5387)	99.2
Malaysia	13.2	18.7	30.3	37.5	(6302)	99.7
Sri Lanka	11.4	16.3	29.4	41.8	(6790)	99.7
Thailand	9.4	10.4	17.4	62.5	(3778)	98.9
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN						
Colombia	10.7	16.5	35.1	37.4	(3292)	99.7
Guyana	16.8	4.8	42.8	34.0	(3558)	98.4
Panama	17.8	19.4	37.0	25.6	(3197)	99.8
Peru	16.2	14.9	28.8	38.7	(5561)	98.6

* Ages 15-49 years refer to women only; men's ages are 'all ages'.

^a The Occupational Classification is based on the following coding scheme:

- Respondents: 1. *Modern* = Professional and Clerical categories (white collar);
 2. *Transitional* = Household and Service categories;
 3. *Mixed* = Sales, Skilled, and Unskilled categories (manual); and
 4. *Traditional* = Farm and Agricultural categories.

- Husbands: 1. *Modern* = Professional and Clerical categories (white collar);
 2. *Transitional* = Sales and Service categories (including Household);
 3. *Mixed* = Skilled and Unskilled categories (manual); and
 4. *Traditional* = Farm and Agricultural categories.

^b Not available.

^c Figures based on percent of women ever in the labor force. Source: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.7.H.

Source: United Nations, 1981. Tables I.1-B and I.9 (respondents) and Tables II.1 and II.4 (husbands).

labor force who fall into each occupational category.

The statistics for respondents in this table indicate diversity in the relative size of each occupational group. The size of the Modern group ranges from 3.6 percent in Bangladesh to 36.3 percent in

Panama. At the other extreme of the employment sector, the size of the Traditional group ranges from 3.5 percent in Panama to 73.1 percent in Thailand.

According to Durand, "Labor force participation rates can be viewed as products of demand and supply factors interacting within a framework of

cultural and social institutions that govern the functional roles of individuals according to sex, age, and other attributes. Since this framework is not the same in different societies, it is to be expected that the levels of the participation rates may differ between countries in similar economic circumstances, and that similar economic developments may have different effects on the trends of the rates over time."²³ In his analysis of the levels and trends of labor force participation, Durand classifies countries into regional groups having some degree of homogeneity of culture and institutions. Since this perspective is useful for the type of cross-country analysis carried out in this report, the following discussion is based on Durand's approach.

Age-specific labor force participation rates for currently working women are shown in Figure 16. The lowest rates are found in Jordan, an Arabic Moslem country. Youssef attributes the low participation by women in these types of countries to the combined effects of traditional seclusion (volitional avoidance of public activities) and exclusion (prohibitions and limitations imposed by males).²⁴ Durand and Youssef found that among Moslem countries, the lowest levels of participation were found in Arab countries, and concluded that this was principally due to Arabic culture rather than the Islamic religion. There are not enough countries in this report to conclusively validate such findings, but it is notable that in Malaysia and Indonesia, predominantly Moslem countries outside the Arab region, the levels of female activity are substantially higher.

Activity rates of women in all Latin American countries except Peru are distinctly lower than the rates for most Asian countries. Peru has a higher labor force participation rate than the other Latin American countries, but also has the highest percentage of women employed in traditional agricultural occupations. A significant indigenous influence may account for the Peruvian pattern. In Colombia and Panama, the female share of nonagricultural employment is substantially higher than their share of employment in the agricultural sector; and a relatively large proportion of women who have worked after marriage are employed in the transitional occupations. Youssef²⁷ and Collver and Langlois²⁸ suggest that the large proportion of women employed as domestic servants in Latin American and Caribbean countries may be related to the high prevalence of consensual unions, which offer little economic security for women. The United Nations found that the proportion of women in the transitional occupations was even higher for those who

worked *before* marriage: 39.4 percent in Colombia and 55.3 percent in Panama.²⁹ This seems to indicate that household and domestic work is typically done either by young unmarried women, who do not pursue this kind of work after marriage, or by women who are in consensual unions or otherwise provide the main source of economic support to their children. In some South and East Asian countries, (Thailand and Korea, in particular) very high labor force participation rates are found and women generally have a larger share of agricultural employment compared to nonagricultural employment.

A comparison of Occupational Classifications between women who have worked after marriage and their husbands reveals that the Traditional group is larger for women than it is for men in all of the Asian countries. A particularly large differential exists in Jordan where the proportion of women in the Traditional group is nearly five times larger than the proportion of men in that group. By contrast, the proportion of women employed in Transitional occupations is smaller than the proportion of men employed in these occupations. Jordan exhibits a particularly large differential (5 percent for women and 40 percent for men). An exception to this pattern occurs in Korea where a larger proportion of women than men are employed in Transitional occupations (26 percent and 17 percent, respectively). The size of the Modern group is smaller for women than for their husbands in all Asian countries, except for Jordan where the total percentage of women who work after marriage is very small.

These patterns do not hold, however, among the Latin American countries. A larger proportion of men than women are employed in Traditional occupations: conversely, a larger proportion of women than men are employed in Transitional occupations. No clear-cut pattern is evident in the Modern occupations. In Colombia and Panama, a larger proportion of women (who have worked after marriage) than men are employed in Modern occupations.

Conclusion

The status of women is a highly elusive concept. While there is some agreement between various theoretical definitions, there is little if any agreement about the operational definition. Theoretically, women's status has been defined as "the degree of women's access to (and control over) *material* resources (including food, income, land, and other forms of wealth) and to *social* resources

(including knowledge, power, and prestige) within the family, in the community, and in society at large."³⁰ It has also been defined as "the ranking, in terms of prestige, power, or esteem, according to the position of women in comparison with, relative to, the ranking—also in terms of prestige, power, or esteem—given to the position of men."³¹ Two crucially important questions are: which social indicators should be used to establish the ranking of the position of women relative to the position of men, and who should make this value judgment?³²

Frequently used indicators, such as proportions of women in the labor force and levels of educational attainment, have important limitations. In societies where alternative sources of child care are almost universally available to mothers through the extended family, labor force participation of mothers may not be a "sexist issue."³³ Likewise, in societies with a high percentage of illiterates, measures of status based on education assign different rankings only to those few who are literate. The illiterate majority is given one low status ranking, when in fact these persons have different rankings relative to each other.

The lack of consensus presents serious difficulties in accurately assessing the status of women within a society, and particularly across societies. Yet this report has analyzed various aspects of women's educational attainment and employment, as the best available dimensions to measure women's status. As Buvinic points out, however, in the final analysis, the determination of which indicators of status are meaningful is dependent upon the members of the society who determine the status of position within the society. She states that "meaningful indicators of women's status can only be derived from an understanding of both the structural and dynamic aspects of the society in question—that is, knowing its particular social structure and the sources of power, prestige, and/or esteem for its members."³⁴ Such a discussion is beyond the scope of this report. Buvinic suggests, finally, "current measures of women's status, especially those used cross-culturally, probably could be better defined as measures of 'modernity in women's participation'."³⁵ Viewed in this light, the information presented in this report may be useful.

Differentials among countries as well as changes over time were noted in educational attainment. The data reveal that improvement in educational attainment for women over the past 25 years has

been quite substantial in most countries. In Malaysia, the proportion of women with no education fell from about 70 percent among the oldest to 12 percent among the youngest women surveyed. The data also reveal, however, that extreme differences still exist in illiteracy rates between men and women. Approximately 25 percent of the men and 46 percent of the women in the Asian countries surveyed were illiterate. Differentials exist in Latin America as well, although they are not as great. Not surprisingly, in nearly every country, many more men than women have attained secondary or higher levels of education.

An important issue to consider (but with which this report is unable to deal) is the content of the education received by both males and females at the primary as well as at the secondary levels. Masculine and feminine stereotyping exists in the education system of almost every culture. The consequences of this educational pattern are clear. Less education or education in those skills which are stereotyped as "feminine" has both a direct and indirect impact on women: direct in that it determines and limits women's job options, and indirect in that it reinforces traditional sex-related beliefs.³⁶ As agents of change for the improvement of women, education systems must provide women with an opportunity to redefine their role and plan their lives as active members of society.

Women's participation in economic activity has also been examined in this report and, as with education, the differentials were substantial. In Bangladesh, Pakistan, Jordan, and Fiji, a large majority of women had never been employed. In Thailand, on the other hand, only 3 percent had never been employed, while over 85 percent had worked both before and after marriage. Among those Thai women who worked after marriage, however, nearly three-quarters were employed in the traditional agricultural sector which may not infer higher status.

The issues women advocate in various countries of the world are universal: equality under the law, control over their own reproductive behavior, and access to the full range of opportunities to explore their individual and collective potential. These issues may be translated in terms of needs, such as legal reforms, unrestricted access to family planning information and services, and equal opportunities for education, training, and employment.³⁷ The data in this report indicate that, despite certain improvements, these needs remain unmet.

Appendix

Appendix Table A-1. Selected Demographic, Social, and Economic Characteristics for Countries in the WFS: 1974-79

	Year of WFS Survey	Population Estimate ^a Mid 1978 (Millions)	Surface Area (1,000 km ²) ^b	Birth Rate ^{b,m}	Death Rate ^{b,m}	Rate of Population Growth ^{c,m} (Annual Percent)	Infant Mortality Rate ^{d,m}	Population Under 15 Years ^e (Percent)	Life Expectancy at Birth ^f (Years) (Total)	(Female) ^g	(Male) ^h	Percent Women in Union ^g	Per Capita Gross National Product (U.S. \$)	Physical Quality of Life ^{h,d} Index	Adult Literacy Rate ⁱ (Male) ^{cc} (Total)	Population per Physician ^{j,cc}	Population Having Access ^{j,cc} to Safe Water (Percent)	Government Position on ^h Family Planning	Percent Married Women ^g Using Contraception, Age 15-49
ASIA																			
BAHAGACHIM	1976	78.1	144	47	26	2.7	153	43	46	47	48	64.8 ^{ab}	110	32	22 ^{ac}	11,360	83	OP-DMR	8
FIJI	1974	.6	18	29	7	2.2	41	36	70	73	70	12.0	1,150	79	75 ^{cc}	2,300	69	OP-DMR	40
INDONESIA	1976	134.7	2,037 ^d	36	14	2.4	137 ^e	44	46	51	49	31.0 ^{ab}	240	48	72 ^{cc}	16,430	12	OP-DMR	28 ^g
JORDAN	1976	2.8	96	48	13	3.4	97	48	53	57	54	28.0	610	47	70	2,250	56	NOP-PPAV	22 ^g
KOREA, (R.P.)	1974	34.8	98	24	7	1.7	47	38	65	65	66	3.2	870	82	86	1,600	62	OP-DMR	35
MALAYSIA	1974	12.4	330	31	6	2.5	41	43	68	63	60	11.3 ^c	880	73	75	4,350	62	OP-DMR	33 ^g
NEPAL	1976	12.9	141	44	29	2.3	152	46	44	42	44	61.5	126	27	13	38,860	9	OP-DMR	2
PAKISTAN	1976	72.5	804 ^d	44	14	3.0	138	46	51	52	52	38.0	170	36	20 ^{cc}	3,850	29	OP-DMR	5
PHILIPPINES	1976	44.8	300	36	10	2.6	80	43	58	62	58	11.8	410	71	87 ^{cc}	3,150	38	OP-DMR	37
SRI LANKA	1975	14.0	66	26	9	1.7	47	39	68	65	62	6.5	200	52	70 ^{cc}	6,230	20	OP-DMR	32
THAI AND	1977	42.3	514	33	10	2.3	89	46	61	63	58	14.4 ^c	380	71	79 ^{cc}	8,370	22	OP-DMR	33
TURKEY	1978	40.2	780	39	12	2.6	119	42	57	62	60	21.7	690	60	60	1,720	75	OP-DMR	36
LATIN AMERICA																			
COLOMBIA	1976	23.6	1,140	33	9	2.4	90	44	61	64	61	14	630	72	73	1,820	64	OP-DMR	42
COSTA RICA	1976	2.0	51	29	5	2.4	38	44	66	72	68	13	1,040	85	84 ^{cc}	1,550	77	OP-DMR	64
DOMINICAN REP.	1976	4.8	48	36	9	3.0	96	46	66	62	68	20	780	84	86	1,870	86	OP-DMR	31
GUAYANA	1975	.8	215	27	7	2.0	50	44	68	72	68	25	540	84	86 ^{cc}	3,270	-	NOP-PPAV	31
JAMAICA	1976-78	2.1	11	38	7	2.9	20	46	66	72	68	23	1,670	85	87 ^{cc}	3,510	86	OP-DMR	39
MEXICO	1976	62.3	1,973	42	8	3.4	66	46	65	67	64	18	1,080	75	74 ^c	1,840 ^{hh}	62	OP-DMR	30
PANAMA	1977	1.7	76	32	7	2.6	47	43	66	72	68	17	1,310	78	78	1,270	78	OP-DMR	64
PERU	1977-78	16.0	1,285	40	11	2.9	80	45	56	58	55	16	800	66	72 ^{cc}	1,560	47	NOP-PPAV	31

NA = not available

- a Based on most recent official country or U.N. estimate: mid-1974 estimate for most countries. Each estimate was updated to mid-1976 by applying the same rate of growth as indicated by population change during part or all of the period since 1970.
- b Rates refer to 1976 and were obtained by interpolating the 1970-1975 and 1975-1980 estimates of the U.N. to 1976. The 1970-1975 and 1975-1980 rates were used in the medium variant estimates and projections as assessed by the U.N. in 1978 (U.N., *Selected World Demographic Indicators By Countries, 1950-2000*). The interpolated figures should be considered as rough approximations only.
- c Birth rate minus the death rate. Since the rates were based on unrounded birth and death rates, some rates do not exactly equal the difference between the birth and death rates shown because of rounding.
- d Annual number of deaths to infants under one year of age per 1,000 births.
- e The percentage of women currently 15-19 years of age currently in union (as defined by each country), excluding those currently married but separated.
- f Data refer to either 1973 or 1976.
- g Based on an average of life expectancy at age one, infant mortality, and literacy rates.
- h Adult literacy is defined by source bb and cc as the percentage of those 15 or more years of age who are able to read and write. The following exceptions hold:
Source bb: Indonesia and Malaysia, 10 or more years of age.
Source cc: Bangladesh and Peru, most recent estimate.
Data are from source bb unless otherwise indicated.
- i The codes used to signify the government position on family planning are as follows:
OP-DMIR: Official policy to reduce population growth for demographic reasons; support family planning to implement this policy.
NOP-FPAV: No official policy or statement on family planning or stated policy of non-intervention, services freely available from government centers or private clinics.
- j Indonesia—including West Irian.
k Pakistan—excluding Jammu, Kashmir, Junagadh, Manavadar, Gilgit, and Baluchistan.
l Indonesia—Java & Bali only.
m Malaysia—includes Peninsular Malaysia only.
n Excluding estimated adjustments for underenumeration.
o Data refer to either 1977 or 1978.
p Jordan—East Bank only.

SOURCES:

- aa Population Reference Bureau, *World Population Data Sheet: 1976/1978*.
- bb United Nations, *Demographic Yearbook, 1976*, T.3 and T.41; 1973, T.33; 1971, T.1B.
- cc World Bank, *World Tables 1980: Social Indicators*, T.3 and T.5.
- dd Overseas Development Council, *The United States and World Development: Agenda 1978*, T.A-4.
- ff Population Reference Bureau, *Family Planning and Marriage Data Sheet: 1970-1980*.
- gg WFS First Country Reports, Various Tables.
- hh WHO *World Health Statistics Annual, 1978*, Vol. III, T.2.1.
- ii Population Reference Bureau, *World Women's Data Sheet: 1980*.

Appendix Table A-2. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (or Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, by Current Age, and by Percent Illiterate: WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT			Not Stated	Percent Illiterate ¹
		No Educ.	Primary	Secondary and Higher		
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC						
Bangladesh						
<25	(2823)	70.6	22.5	6.9		
25-34	(1899)	80.0	16.8	3.2		
35-44	(1298)	85.1	12.7	2.2		
45 +	(495)	88.3	9.6	2.1		
15-49	(6515)	77.6	17.9	4.1	0.3	80.4
Fiji						
<30	(2184)	11.5	68.3	20.2		
30 +	(2744)	25.4	68.5	6.0		
15-49	(4928)	19.3	68.4	12.3		22.5
Indonesia						
<25	(2608)	26.3	68.7	5.0		
25-34	(2901)	42.1	51.7	6.2		
35-44	(2639)	66.3	30.2	3.5		
45 +	(956)	75.1	23.1	1.8		
15-49	(9104)	48.1	47.3	4.6		53.8
Jordan						
<25	(925)	48.0	36.1	15.8		
25-34	(1337)	65.5	18.8	15.7		
35-44	(978)	84.4	8.9	6.7		
45 +	(372)	87.4	7.6	5.0		
15-49	(3612)	50.7	27.3	21.9 ²		54.8
Korea, Rep. of						
<25	(609)	2.3	58.3	39.4		
25-34	(2249)	9.1	50.2	40.6		
35-44	(1889)	29.6	52.2	17.9		
45 +	(673)	53.0	36.0	10.4		
15-49	(5420)	20.9	50.1	28.9		18.4
Malaysia						
<25	(1181)	12.5	66.6 ³	21.0		
25-34	(2253)	23.4	61.3	15.4		
35-44	(1954)	48.2	44.8	7.0		
45 +	(932)	67.5	28.4	4.1		
15-49	(6320)	35.5	52.3	12.2		40.2
Nepal						
<25	(1966)	92.3	7.0	0.7	0.3	
25-34	(2002)	95.4	3.9	0.4		
35-44	(1455)	98.6	1.2	0.1		
45 +	(517)	98.7	0.7	0.0		
15-49	(5940)	95.4	4.0	0.6		93.8
Pakistan						
<25	(1471)	86.9	8.4	4.7		
25-34	(1732)	88.8	7.0	5.0		
35-44	(1246)	92.0	5.0	3.0		
45 +	(500)	94.0	3.0	3.0		
15-49	(4949)	89.3	6.7	4.0		88.0

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-2. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (or Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, by Current Age, and by Percent Illiterate: WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT				Percent Illiterate ¹
		No Educ.	Primary	Secondary and Higher	Not Stated	
Philippines						
<25	(1498)	4.3	17.2	78.5		
25-34	(3486)	3.2	20.2	76.6		
35-44	(3083)	6.4	28.4	73.0		
45+	(1201)	13.6	34.7	51.6		
15-49	(9268)	5.8	24.3	69.9		11.5
Sri Lanka						
<25	(1116)	14.2	41.9	43.9		
25-34	(2533)	17.2	37.9	44.8		
35-44	(2169)	26.4	39.1	34.4		
45+	(995)	34.3	41.4	24.3		
15-49	(6813)	22.2	39.4	38.4		27.2
Thailand						
<25	(817)	10.0	80.5	9.4		
25-34	(1338)	13.2	77.1	9.7		
35-44	(1165)	23.2	72.7	4.1		
45+	(456)	33.6	60.7	5.7		
15-49	(3776)	18.1	74.5	7.4		17.3
Turkey⁴						
<25	(1156)	33.7	48.3	8.6	9.4	
25-34	(1522)	45.2	31.6	10.1	13.1	
35-44	(1255)	61.0	18.6	5.9	14.5	
45+	(498)	68.1	15.3	4.6	12.0	
15-49	(4431)	49.3	30.4	7.9	12.4	49.3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN						
Colombia						
<25	(804)	13.8	60.6	25.4		
25-34	(1185)	16.6	60.8	22.4		
35-44	(942)	27.4	57.5	14.9		
45+	(371)	34.2	53.6	11.8		
15-49	(3302)	21.1	59.0	19.9	0.2	10.4
Costa Rica						
20-29	(1172)	2.0	65.6	32.3		
30-39	(1081)	6.5	68.0	25.5		
40-49	(784)	9.9	74.4	15.7		
20-49	(3037)	5.7	68.7	25.6		8.9
Dominican Republic						
<25	(720)	6.0	83.6	10.4		
25-34	(730)	3.3	85.1	11.6		
35-44	(581)	9.3	83.3	7.4		
45+	(225)	17.8	75.1	7.1		
15-49	(2256)	7.1	83.1	9.7		24.5

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-2. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (or Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, by Current Age, and by Percent Illiterate: WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT				Percent Illiterate ¹
		No Educ.	Primary	Secondary and Higher	Not Stated	
Guyana						
<25	(1077)	— 24.1 —		75.3	0.6	
25-34	(1248)	— 71.6 —		27.8	0.6	
35-44	(906)	— 86.9 —		11.8	1.3	
45 +	(385)	— 89.9 —		8.8	1.3	
15-49	(3616)	3.8 ⁵	59.4 ⁵	35.9	0.9	—
Jamaica						
<25	(868)	— 62.3 —		37.7		
25-34	(869)	— 78.6 —		21.4		
35-44	(704)	— 88.6 —		11.4		
45 +	(324)	— 90.4 —		9.6		
15-49	(2765)	2.2 ⁶	75.2 ⁶	22.6		—
Mexico						
<25	(1591)	13.4	67.6	19.0		
25-34	(2249)	18.7	61.1	20.2		
35-44	(1765)	29.8	57.1	13.0		
45 +	(650)	37.5	52.5	10.0		
15-49	(6255)	22.4	60.7	16.9	0.9	19.9
Panama						
20-29	(1269)	— 51.9 —		48.1		
30-39	(1185)	— 62.8 —		37.2		
40-49	(749)	— 70.0 —		30.0		
20-49	(3203)	6.7 ⁷	53.3 ⁷	39.9		9.5
Peru						
<25	(1291)	11.1	59.2	29.7		
25-34	(1978)	19.8	50.8	29.4		
35-44	(1683)	36.4	48.9	14.7		
45 +	(688)	44.3	42.2	13.5		
15-49	(5640)	25.8	51.1	23.1		33.1

— Data not available in WFS First Country Reports.

¹ Percent Illiterate source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5.

² Jordan 15-49 source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5.

³ Malaysia: "Primary Education" category includes religious education and nonformal education.

⁴ Turkey: Category "No Education" was not available in the WFS First Country Report. Age breakdown by Illiteracy is available and is used as the "No Education" category throughout this report.

⁵ Guyana: "No Education" category is not available by age. Category "Primary Education" is tabulated as "less than four years primary" and "more than four years primary". For age group 15-49 years, "No Education" includes 3.8 percent who have less than four years of primary education while "Primary" includes 59.4 percent who have more than four years of primary education. (Source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5).

⁶ Jamaica: "No Education" category is not available by age. Category "Primary Education" is tabulated as "less than four years primary" and "more than four years primary". For age group 15-49 years, "No Education" includes 2.2 percent who have less than four years of primary education while "Primary" includes 75.2 percent who have more than four years of primary education. (Source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5).

⁷ Panama 20-49 source: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 5.

Sources: Malaysia, Philippines, Costa Rica, and Dominican Republic: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.6.3A or B; Turkey, Guyana, Jamaica, and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6A or C; Bangladesh: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.1.4A; Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C.1; Indonesia: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.5C; Jordan and Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.1.1A; Korea: WFS First Country Report, Table 8; Nepal: WFS First Country Report, Table 6.1.1; Pakistan: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.4; Thailand: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.5.3A; Colombia: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.5.5(A-3); Mexico: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.10; and Panama: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.3.2A.

Appendix Table A-3. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND EDUCATION LEVEL	No. of Cases	CURRENT RESIDENCE	
		Urban	Rural
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC			
Bangladesh			
None		60.2	79.3
Primary		22.8	17.5
Secondary and Higher		16.6	3.2
Total		99.6	100.0
N	(6515)	(517)	(5999)
Fiji			
None		14.8	21.8
Primary		64.5	70.6
Secondary +		20.7	7.6
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(4910)	(1764)	(3146)
Indonesia			
None		25.8	52.1
Primary		54.8	46.0
Secondary +		19.3	1.9
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(9103)	(1416)	(7687)
Jordan			
None		60.6	86.8
Primary		23.0	10.8
Secondary +		16.4	2.4
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3612)	(2532)	(1080)
Korea, Rep. of			
None		10.6	32.3
Primary		45.8	54.8
Secondary +		43.5	12.8
Total		99.9	99.9
N	(5420)	(2834)	(2586)
Malaysia			
None		21.7	38.2
Primary		51.8	52.4
Secondary +		26.4	9.4
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(6313)	(1022)	(5291)
Pakistan			
None		73.8	95.0
Primary		13.2	4.4
Secondary +		13.0	0.6
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(4948)	(1319)	(3629)

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-3. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND EDUCATION LEVEL	No. of Cases	CURRENT RESIDENCE	
		Urban	Rural
Philippines			
None		1.7	7.7
Primary		11.6	30.3
Secondary +		86.6	62.0
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(9268)	(2976)	(6292)
Sri Lanka			
None		11.3	24.7
Primary		31.5	41.2
Secondary +		57.1	34.1
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(6813)	(1255)	(5557)
Thailand			
None		9.2	19.5
Primary		61.9	76.7
Secondary +		28.9	3.8
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3776)	(551)	(3225)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN			
Colombia			
None		12.6	36.1
Primary		58.8	59.4
Secondary +		28.6	4.5
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3302)	(2123)	(1176)
Costa Rica			
None		2.7	8.8
Primary		55.8	82.6
Secondary +		41.5	8.5
Total		100.0	99.9
N	(3037)	(1575)	(1462)
Dominican Republic			
None		4.0	10.3
Primary		79.0	87.4
Secondary +		17.0	2.3
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(2256)	(1144)	(1112)
Guyana			
None		— ¹	— ¹
Primary ²		51.0	71.0
Secondary +		49.0	28.9
Total		100.0	99.9
N	(3586)	(1303)	(2283)

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-3. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Highest Level of Educational Attainment and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND EDUCATION LEVEL	No. of Cases	CURRENT RESIDENCE	
		Urban	Rural
Jamaica			
None		— ¹	— ¹
Primary ²		68.5	85.6
Secondary +		31.5	14.4
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(2765)	(1319)	(1446)
Mexico			
None		15.8	31.8
Primary		57.7	64.9
Secondary +		26.5	3.3
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(6255)	(3650)	(2605)
Panama			
None		0.3	13.1
Primary		24.6	62.6
Secondary +		75.1	24.3
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3203)	(983)	(2220)
Peru			
None		14.2	49.5
Primary		50.3	47.7
Secondary +		35.5	2.8
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(5640)	(3607)	(2033)

* Data not available in WFS First Country Report for Nepal and Turkey.

¹ Education category "none" is not available for Jamaica or Guyana.

² Primary Education tabulated as "less than 4 years" and "more than 4 years."

Sources: Malaysia, Pakistan, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, and Panama: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.5A or B; Thailand: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6A; Bangladesh, Korea, Philippines, Guyana, Jamaica, and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.7A, B, E, or F; Jordan and Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.2.1B or F; Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C3; Indonesia: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.8; and Mexico: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.10.

Appendix Table A-4. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Current Age: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	Never Worked	PATTERN OF WORK			
			Worked Only Before Marriage	Worked Only After Marriage	Worked Before and After Marriage	Not Stated
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC						
Bangladesh						
<25	(2823)	90.2	1.4	6.0	2.4	
25-34	(1899)	83.0	0.6	13.9	2.4	
35-44	(1298)	81.6	0.3	16.3	1.8	
45 +	(495)	81.3	0.2	17.0	1.5	
15-49	(6515)	85.6	0.9	11.2	2.3	
Fiji						
<30	(2184)	66.3	12.2	—	21.4	
30 +	(2744)	60.6	12.1	—	18.4	
15-49	(4928)	63.2	12.1	7.0	17.6	
Indonesia						
<25	(2625)	35.0	8.3	19.9	36.7	
25-34	(2909)	27.3	5.1	28.4	39.2	
35-44	(2645)	17.7	3.4	33.4	45.4	
45 +	(957)	15.3	4.8	33.8	45.6	
15-49	(9136)	25.4	5.5	28.0	41.1	
Jordan						
<25	(925)	82.6	8.4	2.8	6.2	
25-34	(1337)	72.6	11.2	4.4	11.8	
35-44	(978)	75.0	9.1	6.7	9.2	
45 +	(372)	78.8	6.2	7.6	7.3	
15-49	(3612)	75.8	9.9	5.0	9.3	
Korea, Rep. of						
<25	(609)	22.7	38.8	12.3	26.3	
25-34	(2246)	24.0	24.8	19.2	32.0	
35-44	(1887)	20.2	7.1	36.9	35.8	
45 +	(673)	15.9	6.2	47.1	30.8	
15-49	(5415)	21.5	17.9	28.0	32.5	
Malaysia ¹						
<25	(1181)	22.5	—	—	—	
25-34	(2250)	34.1	—	—	—	
35-44	(1953)	29.3	—	—	—	
45 +	(930)	14.1	—	—	—	
15-49	(6314)	29.0	14.4	19.6	37.0	
Nepal ²						
<25	—	—	—	—	—	
25-34	—	—	—	—	—	
35-44	—	—	—	—	—	
45 +	—	—	—	—	—	
15-49	(5940)	29.9	1.5	28.0	40.7	
Pakistan						
<25	(1471)	82.5	2.8	6.5	9.2	
25-34	(1732)	78.3	3.0	11.0	7.7	
35-44	(1246)	75.7	1.0	16.4	6.8	
45 +	(500)	76.3	1.5	16.5	5.7	
15-49	(4949)	78.5	2.5	11.7	7.2	

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-4. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Current Age: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	Never Worked	PATTERN OF WORK			Not Stated
			Worked Only Before Marriage	Worked Only After Marriage	Worked Before and After Marriage	
Philippines						
<25	(1498)	49.1	12.4	15.0	23.5	
25-34	(3486)	34.3	8.0	28.3	29.4	
35-44	(3083)	34.8	3.7	38.4	23.1	
45 +	(1201)	34.5	3.4	38.9	23.1	
15-49	(9268)	36.9	6.7	30.9	25.5	
Sri Lanka¹						
<25	(1116)	57.8	11.3	30.8	—	
25-34	(2533)	46.5	11.8	41.7	—	
35-44	(2169)	43.7	8.0	48.3	—	
45 +	(995)	48.6	7.7	43.7	—	
15-49	(6818)	47.7	10.0	42.4	—	
Thailand⁴						
<25	(819)	4.5	—	—	—	
25-34	(1342)	3.0	—	—	—	
35-44	(1165)	2.6	—	—	—	
45 +	(455)	2.2	—	—	—	
15-49	(3781)	3.1	6.5	5.4	85.1	
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN						
Colombia						
<25	(804)	35.6	29.8	12.5	22.0	
25-34	(1185)	31.6	22.5	14.4	31.4	
35-44	(942)	31.6	21.1	18.3	29.0	
45 +	(371)	33.4	19.7	20.8	26.1	
15-49	(3302)	32.8	23.6	15.8	27.8	
Costa Rica						
20-29	(1172)	26.2	34.6	10.2	29.0	
30-39	(1081)	21.6	29.8	10.6	37.9	
40-49	(784)	23.7	30.0	8.7	37.6	
20-49	(3037)	23.9	31.7	9.9	34.4	
Dominican Republic						
<25	(715)	47.8	18.3	15.7	18.2	
25-34	(735)	38.4	13.9	23.9	24.0	
35-44	(581)	37.9	11.2	30.0	21.0	
45 +	(226)	38.5	7.1	34.5	19.9	
15-49	(2257)	41.2	13.9	23.8	21.0	
Guyana⁵						
<25	—	—	—	—	—	
24-34	—	—	—	—	—	
35-44	—	—	—	—	—	
45 +	—	—	—	—	—	
15-49	(3616)	42.7	9.4	19.2	24.5	4.2

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-4. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Current Age: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	Never Worked	PATTERN OF WORK				Not Stated
			Worked Only Before Marriage	Worked Only After Marriage	Worked Before and After Marriage		
Jamaica⁶							
<25	—	—	—	—	—		
25-34	—	—	—	—	—		
35-44	—	—	—	—	—		
45 +	—	—	—	—	—		
15-49	(2765)	19.4	7.5	30.4	35.3		7.4
Mexico							
<25	(1591)	37.7	39.3	5.5	16.8		0.7
25-34	(2249)	33.2	35.0	8.5	22.2		1.1
35-44	(1765)	32.3	27.2	15.2	24.0		1.3
45 +	(650)	36.9	20.9	18.5	22.9		0.8
15-49	(6255)	34.5	32.5	10.7	21.4		0.8
Panama							
20-29	(1269)	22.7	27.1	15.3	34.9		
30-39	(1185)	24.9	21.4	18.0	35.6		
40-49	(749)	25.2	17.5	20.2	37.1		
20-49	(3203)	24.1	22.8	17.4	35.7		
Peru							
<25	(1291)	26.6	23.7	10.3	39.4		
25-34	(1978)	15.2	22.6	13.1	49.0		
35-44	(1683)	14.7	15.6	14.5	55.2		
45 +	(688)	12.4	13.4	14.5	59.7		
15-49	(5640)	17.3	19.6	13.1	50.0		

* Data not available in WFS First Country Report for Turkey.

¹ Malaysia: Ages 15-49 figures: "Worked Only After Marriage" includes 3.4 percent (214) 'after marriage' plus 16.2 percent (1024) 'currently working, but not before marriage'. "Worked Before and After Marriage" includes 7 percent (442) 'both before and after marriage' plus 30.0 percent (1896) 'currently working, also worked before marriage'. These figures were obtained from Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 7.

² Nepal: Pattern of work by age not available from WFS First Country Report. All ages breakdown obtained from Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 7.

³ Sri Lanka: "Worked Only Before Marriage" includes 7.2 percent who worked away from home and 2.8 percent who worked at home. "Worked Only After Marriage" includes 24.7 percent who worked away from home and 17.7 percent who worked at home.

⁴ Thailand: Pattern of work by age is not available for "Worked Only Before Marriage", "Worked Only After Marriage", and "Worked Before and After Marriage". 'Currently working' women are not disaggregated into before and after marriage patterns, so it was not possible to obtain total figures for all women who worked before and/or after marriage.

⁵ Guyana: Pattern of work by age is not available from WFS First Country Report. "Not stated" includes 4.1 percent who had no live birth. (Work categories relate to first birth, as distinguished from work categories which relate to first marriage in Asia.)

⁶ Jamaica: Pattern of work by age not available. "Not stated" (7.4 percent) includes 6.1 percent who had no live birth and 1.3 percent actually not stated. (Work categories relate to first birth, as distinguished from work categories which relate to first marriage in Asia.)

Sources: Nepal and Thailand (Totals only): Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 7; Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Dominican Republic: WFS, Special Tabulations; Malaysia, Colombia, and Mexico: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.5.5A or F; Guyana and Jamaica: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.5F; Korea and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6E; Jordan and Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.1.1E or F; Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C.7; Indonesia: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.5E; Philippines: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.0.3; Thailand (Never Worked category only): WFS First Country Report, Table 4.5.1G; and Panama: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.3.2E.

Appendix Table A-5. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, Ages 15-49 Years: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND PATTERN OF WORK ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	No. of Cases	EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT		
		No Edu- cation	Primary	Secondary and Higher
Fiji				
(1) Never Worked		84.1	68.7	49.5 ¹
(2) Worked Before Marriage Only*		2.8	11.4	16.8
(3) Worked After Marriage Only*		13.1	19.9	33.7
(4) Worked Before and After Marriage*		—	—	—
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(4928)	(951)	(1817)	(2160)
Indonesia				
(1) Never Worked		16.5	33.0	39.5
(2) B. M. O.		4.4	6.1	10.3
(3) A. M. O.		29.8	27.3	16.7
(4) B. & A. M.		49.3	33.6	33.5
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(9104)	(4376)	(4310)	(418)
Jordan				
(1) Never Worked		78.0	85.1	54.2 ²
(2) B. M. O.		9.6	8.1	10.2
(3) A. M. O.		5.1	3.6	11.2
(4) B. & A. M.		7.3	3.2	24.4
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(3610)	(2470)	(701)	(439)
Korea, Rep. of				
(1) Never Worked		12.1	22.3	27.3 ¹
(2) B. M. O.		4.7	15.2	32.1
(3) A. M. O.		41.9	29.4	15.3
(4) B. & A. M.		41.2	33.1	25.3
Total		99.9	100.0	100.0
N	(5410)	(1135)	(2713)	(1562)
Philippines				
(1) Never Worked		42.5	38.0	36.2
(2) B. M. O.		3.7	5.2	7.5
(3) A. M. O.		31.1	35.4	29.3
(4) B. & A. M.		22.7	21.4	27.0
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(9268) ⁴	(536)	(2254)	(6435)
Sri Lanka				
(1) Never Worked		35.1	45.3	57.3
(2) B. M. O.		5.8	10.0	12.5
(3) A. M. O.		59.1	44.7	30.2
(4) B. & A. M.		—	—	— ⁵
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(6674)	(1478)	(2637)	(2559)

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-5. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Highest Level of Educational Attainment, Ages 15-49 Years: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND PATTERN OF WORK	No. of Cases	EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT		
		No Edu- cation	Primary	Secondary and Higher
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Costa Rica				
(1) Never Worked		27.3	26.0	17.5
(2) B. M. O.		36.0	36.3	18.5
(3) A. M. O.		8.1	8.2	15.0
(4) B. & A. M.		28.5	29.5	49.0
Total		99.9	100.0	100.0
N	(3037)	(172)	(2087)	(778)
Peru				
(1) Never Worked		14.8	17.6	20.5
(2) B. M. O.		14.4	21.8	23.0
(3) A. M. O.		11.5	12.2	14.9
(4) B. & A. M.		59.3	48.3	41.6
Total		100.0	99.9	100.0
N	(5640)	(1453)	(2881)	(1306)

— Data not available in the WFS First Country Reports.

* Abbreviations to be used for these three pattern of work categories in this table (as well as in Appendix Table A-6) are as follows:

"Worked Before Marriage Only" = B. M. O.

"Worked After Marriage Only" = A. M. O.

"Worked Before and After Marriage" = B. & A. M.

¹ Secondary and Higher includes upper primary and secondary.

² Secondary and Higher includes preparatory, secondary, higher, and institution.

³ Secondary and Higher includes middle school, high school, and college or higher.

⁴ Includes 43 cases not stated.

⁵ "Worked Before and After Marriage" category is not available.

No Education, "Worked Before Marriage Only" includes 4.1 percent who worked away and 1.7 percent who worked at home.

No Education, "Worked After Marriage Only" includes 39.1 percent who worked away and 20.0 percent who worked at home.

Primary, "Worked Before Marriage Only" includes 6.6 percent who worked away and 3.4 percent who worked at home.

Primary, "Worked After Marriage Only" includes 23.2 percent who worked away and 21.5 percent who worked at home.

Secondary, "Worked Before Marriage Only" includes 9.7 percent who worked away and 2.8 percent who worked at home.

Secondary, "Worked After Marriage Only" includes 17.7 percent who worked away and 12.5 percent who worked at home.

Sources: Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C.7; Indonesia and Philippines: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.8; Jordan and Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.2.1; Korea: WFS First Country Report, Table 6.1.5; Costa Rica: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.5B; and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.7J.

Appendix Table A-6. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND PATTERN OF WORK ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	No. of Cases	CURRENT RESIDENCE	
		Urban	Rural
Bangladesh			
(1) Never Worked		82.2	86.0
(2) Worked ¹		17.4	14.0
Total		99.6	100.0
N	(6515)	(517)	(5999)
Fiji			
(1) Never Worked		56.5	67.0
(2) Worked Before Marriage Only*		12.0	12.1
(3) Worked After Marriage Only*		31.5	20.9
(4) Worked Before and After Marriage* ²		—	—
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(4908)	(1764)	(3144)
Indonesia			
(1) Never Worked		41.3	22.5
(2) B. M. O.		13.1	4.1
(3) A. M. O.		23.3	28.8
(4) B. & A. M.		22.3	44.6
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(9136)	(1432)	(7704)
Jordan			
(1) Never Worked		79.9	68.5
(2) B. M. O.		7.8	13.3
(3) A. M. O.		4.8	7.0
(4) B. & A. M.		7.5	11.2
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3612)	(2533)	(1079)
Korea, Rep. of ³			
(1) Never Worked		26.5	16.1
(2) B. M. O.		25.0	10.0
(3) A. M. O.		20.7	36.1
(4) B. & A. M.		27.7	37.7
Total		99.9	99.9
N	(5420)	(2834)	(2586)
Pakistan			
(1) Never Worked		77.4	79.1
(2) B. M. O.		3.8	1.8
(3) A. M. O.		18.9	19.1
(4) B. & A. M. ⁴		—	—
Total		100.1	100.0
N	(4949)	(1281)	(3668)
Philippines			
(1) Never Worked		33.9	38.3
(2) B. M. O.		7.6	6.3
(3) A. M. O.		29.7	31.4
(4) B. & A. M.		28.8	23.9
Total		100.0	99.9
N	(9268)	(2976)	(6292)

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-6. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Pattern of Work and by Current Urban/Rural Residence, Ages 15-49 Years: Selected WFS Countries

COUNTRY AND PATTERN OF WORK	No. of Cases	CURRENT RESIDENCE	
		Urban	Rural
Sri Lanka ⁵			
(1) Never Worked		66.2	43.6
(2) B. M. O.		11.2	9.7
(3) A. M. O.		22.6	46.7
(4) B. & A. M.		—	—
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(6813)	(1255)	(5557)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN			
Costa Rica			
(1) Never Worked		17.2	31.1
(2) B. M. O.		27.9	35.8
(3) A. M. O.		11.9	7.9
(4) B. & A. M.		43.0	25.2
Total		100.0	100.0
N	(3037)	(1575)	(1462)
Jamaica ⁶			
(1) Never Worked		10.0	30.4
(2) Before First Birth Only		7.3	8.7
(3) After First Birth Only		37.2	29.1
(4) Before & After First Birth		45.4	31.8
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(2560)	(1184)	(1376)
Peru			
(1) Never Worked		17.2	18.2
(2) B. M. O.		22.8	15.2
(3) A. M. O.		14.3	9.6
(4) B. & A. M.		45.6	57.0
Total		99.9	100.0
N	(5640)	(3607)	(2033)

* See "9" in Appendix Table A-5.

¹ No detailed breakdown for this category.

² Fiji: Pattern of work category "Worked Before and After Marriage" is not available in WFS First Country Report.

³ Korea, Rep. of: Rural includes Rural and Town.

⁴ Pakistan: Pattern of work category "Worked Before and After Marriage" is not available in WFS First Country Report.

⁵ Sri Lanka: Urban pattern of work category "Worked Before Marriage Only" includes 9.2 percent who worked away and 2.0 percent who worked at home.

Urban pattern of work "Worked After Marriage Only" includes 16.9 percent who worked away and 5.7 percent who worked at home.

Rural pattern of work category "Worked Before Marriage Only" includes 6.8 percent who worked away and 2.9 percent who worked at home.

Rural pattern of work category "Worked After Marriage Only" includes 26.4 percent who worked away and 20.3 percent who worked at home.

Urban and Rural pattern of work category "Worked Before and After Marriage" is not available in WFS First Country Report.

⁶ Jamaica: Pattern of work category is "Worked Before or After First Birth" (as distinguished from "Worked Before or After First Marriage"). 6.1 percent of women had no first births, therefore could not determine the pattern of work. These 6.1 percent were treated as "Not Stated".

Sources: Bangladesh, Jordan, Korea, Philippines, Jamaica, and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.7G, J, or L; Fiji: WFS First Country Report, Table C.9a; Indonesia: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.1.8; Pakistan: WFS First Country Report, Table 3.5; Sri Lanka: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.2.11; and Costa Rica: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.0.3.

Appendix Table A-7. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Current Labor Force Participation and by Current Age: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	Currently Working Women**
ASIA AND THE PACIFIC		
Fiji		
<30	—	—
30+	—	—
15-49	(4928)	17.7
Indonesia		
<25	—	—
25-34	—	—
35-44	—	—
45+	—	—
15-49	(9136)	65.5
Jordan		
<25	(925)	4.1
25-34	(1337)	11.7
35-44	(978)	10.0
45+	(372)	9.7
15-49	(3612)	9.8
Korea, Rep. of		
<25	(609)	29.6
25-34	(2246)	39.7
35-44	(1887)	61.4
45+	(673)	64.9
15-49	(5415)	49.1
Malaysia		
<25	(1181)	30.5
25-34	(2250)	45.9
35-44	(1953)	53.6
45+	(930)	51.8
15-49	(6314)	46.2
Philippines		
<25	(1498)	25.0
25-34	(3486)	43.9
35-44	(3083)	51.2
45+	(1201)	52.0
15-49	(9268)	44.3
Sri Lanka		
<25	(1116)	—
25-34	(2533)	—
35-44	(2169)	—
45+	(995)	—
15-49	(6818)	36.5
Thailand		
<25	(819)	72.8
25-34	(1342)	82.8
35-44	(1165)	86.9
45+	(455)	87.2
15-49	(3781)	82.4

(continued . . .)

Appendix Table A-7. Percent Distribution of Ever-married (Ever-in-Union) Women by Current Labor Force Participation and by Current Age: WFS Countries*

COUNTRY AND AGE	No. of Cases	Currently Working Women**
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN		
Colombia		
<25	(804)	18.5
25-34	(1185)	28.3
35-44	(942)	28.7
45 +	(371)	27.2
15-49	(3302)	25.9
Costa Rica		
20-29	(1172)	23.2
30-39	(1081)	31.1
40-49	(784)	24.9
20-49	(3037)	26.5
Dominican Republic		
<25	(720)	19.0
25-34	(729)	28.0
35-44	(580)	30.5
45 +	(224)	32.6
15-49	(2253)	26.2
Mexico		
<25	(1591)	13.5
25-34	(2249)	19.9
35-44	(1765)	25.2
45 +	(650)	25.2
15-49	(6255)	20.3
Panama		
20-29	(1269)	31.7
30-39	(1185)	34.4
40-49	(749)	33.5
20-49	(3203)	33.1
Peru		
<25	(1291)	38.7
25-34	(1978)	49.3
35-44	(1683)	57.5
45 +	(688)	59.9
15-49	(5640)	50.6

— Data not available by current age breakdown.

* Data not available in WFS First Country Report for Bangladesh, Guyana, Jamaica, Nepal, Pakistan, and Turkey.

** Currently Working Women is a percentage of all women.

Sources: Fiji, Indonesia, and Sri Lanka: Singh, 1980, No. 4, Table 7; Jordan: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.1.1E; Korea and Peru: WFS First Country Report, Table 2.2.6E; Malaysia, Colombia, Dominican Republic, and Mexico: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.5.5A, D, or F; Philippines: WFS First Country Report, Table 1.6.3F; Thailand: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.5.1G; Costa Rica: WFS First Country Report, Table 0.0.3; and Panama: WFS First Country Report, Table 4.3.2E.

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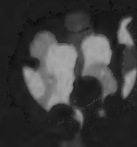
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